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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PROJECT LEADER DEVELOPMENTAL ETHNOCENTRICITY, POSITION POWER, AND PERCEPTIONS OF DEVELOPMENT PROJECT EFFECTIVENESS

by

© DAVID G. MARSHALL

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SPRING, 1980

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled PROJECT LEADER DEVELOPMENTAL ETHNOCENTRICITY, POSITION POWER, AND PERCEPTIONS OF DEVELOPMENT PROJECT EFFECTIVENESS submitted by DAVID G. MARSHALL in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Administration.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among selected indicators of development project effectiveness, selected characteristics of the development project, and selected contextual variables in order to suggest how manipulation of these characteristics may influence development project effectiveness. The line of reasoning that led to the formulation of this study identified the consideration of divergent perspectives of the causes and solutions to underdevelopment as the focus of this study. In this regard, a Canadian International Development Agency (C.I.D.A.) project leader's orientation towards development (developmental ethnocentricity), the degree of position power he exercised in relations with host nationals, and his perceptions of the effectiveness of the most recent project he worked on, were selected as the major research variables for the purposes of this study.

A conceptual framework based upon the relationships between and among developmental ethnocentricity, position power, and development project effectiveness was constructed. Developmental ethnocentricity was regarded as an independent variable, position power an intervening variable and perceptions of development project effectiveness as the dependent variable. From the conceptual framework, nine problem statements were identified and these problem statements were posed as questions in order to delineate the research tasks.

A mailout questionnaire was used to gather perceptual data from 54 project leaders who had served, within the past three years, as project leaders for a C.I.D.A. sponsored development project. The questionnaire

consisted of four parts: (1) part I gathered contextual information, (2) part II gathered the perceptions of the project leaders regarding the effectiveness of their most recent project, (3) part III measured the developmental ethnocentricity of the project leaders, and (4) part IV measured the position power exercised by the respondents.

The study results indicated that the C.I.D.A. project leaders used in this study were developmentally ethnocentric and exercised a high degree of position power in relations with host nationals on their projects. In addition, the project leaders viewed their projects as being most effective in terms of being adaptable and flexible and least effective in terms of the quantity of side effects and the amount of people change induced by their projects' operations.

Regarding the relationships between the variables, ethnocentric project leaders tended to exercise a higher position power than unethnocentric project leaders. Project leaders who exercised a high degree of position power perceived their projects to have been effective regarding the quantity of side effects produced and also perceived their projects to have been inflexible. Furthermore, project leaders required their projects to have been effective regarding the production of initial goals and the inducement of people change before their projects could be perceived as effective regarding the other selected indicators of development project effectiveness.

One major finding of this study was the fact that there appeared to be no relationship between a project leader's developmental ethnocentricity and his perception of the effectiveness of his most recent development project.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

A major concern of any agency supplying aid to developing nations is the consideration of the effectiveness of these aid efforts. Although development efforts vary in size, scope, source and purpose, casual observation suggests that some are more effective than others. How might the effectiveness of the development effort be measured and what distinguishes between those efforts that ". . . are more or less successful in overcoming their troubles and those that are not?" (Hirschman, 1967:3).

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Development projects, as specific tools of a larger development effort, achieve effectiveness with varying degrees of success. An understanding of the relationship between selected characteristics of the development project that can be manipulated by management, and the effectiveness of the development project should identify actions that may be taken to improve the effectiveness of a development project.

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among selected indicators of development project effectiveness, selected characteristics of the development project, and selected contextual variables in order to suggest how manipulation of these characteristics may influence development project effectiveness. An additional, secondary purpose of this study was to operationally test the measurement

instruments developed to meet the primary purpose of this study.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Steers (1977:1) suggested that "the true test of good management is the ability to organize and utilize available resources to achieve and maintain an effective level of operations." It is generally accepted that in any organizational endeavour, effectiveness is a desirable trait. However, there is considerable confusion as to what variables constitute the indicators of an effective organization.

A consideration of the effectiveness of the development project adds to this confusion by the addition of a perspective dilemma. The nature of the development project, with sponsorship from a donor nation and operationalization within a recipient nation, suggests that effectiveness may depend upon from which of the donor nation or recipient nation perspectives effectiveness is viewed. However, a consideration of the specific case of the development project in the context of theories of organizational effectiveness, and a recognition of the dual nature of the development project may assist in the identification of indicators and measures of effectiveness for the development project.

It was from the consideration of the donor nation-recipient nation perspectives that clues were provided as to salient project characteristics that might relate to the various indicators of project effectiveness. With regards to these perspectives, development literature identified two polar approaches to the conceptualization of development: the "liberation" paradigm (Deblois, 1976) representing a conceptualization of development based upon third world consciousness and

praxis, and the "dominant" paradigm (Hochschild, 1978) representing a conceptualization of development based upon Western ideals and models of social action. Hochschild (1978:5) suggested that there may be a relationship between the "dominant" paradigm and third world powerlessness. That is, the more the "dominant" paradigm forms the basis of an individual's or nation's conceptualization of development, the more "dominant" a position this individual/nation will assume in relations with the third world. In addition, Hochschild (1978:6) pointed out that the "dominant" paradigm ". . . determines not only the methodologies and instrumentalities by which a problem of underdevelopment is solved, but it also defines the nature of the problem of underdevelopment." Thus, it could be possible that the degree of a project leader's support for polar development paradigms could influence the degree of power assumed by the project leader on the development project. Together or separately, this orientation and position power could be related to the development project's effectiveness.

It was this line of reasoning which led to the formulation of this study: an examination of the relationship between the development paradigm orientation of the project leader, the position power assumed by the project leader while working on the project and the project leader's perceptions of the effectiveness of the project.

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

This study was justified both theoretically and practically.

Need for Further Research

There was need for further research regarding organizational

effectiveness in general and development project effectiveness specifically. As pointed out by Steers (1977), Ghorpade (1971), Mott (1972), Goodman and Pennings (1977) and others, the research on organizational effectiveness is far from conclusive. As pointed out by Hirschman (1967) and Rondinelli (1977), other than case studies of the operation of development projects provided by aid agencies and the occasional trade journal, any academic research on the development project in general is, for all intents and purposes, non-existent.

In addition, the growing discontent with the "dominant" development paradigm (Hochschild, 1978) suggested that in the area of aid efforts, there was a need for research which takes into consideration alternate development paradigms.

The Effectiveness of the Development Project

Rondinelli (1977:i) suggested the following reasons for the study of the development project:

(1) Projects are the main instruments of international lending and the main channel for the flow of external aid into developing nations.

(2) Projects are the essential link between long term planning and permanent administration.

(3) There is a growing demand for accountability in foreign aid spending.

In addition, the identification of effectiveness indicators of the development project has practical implications for both the donor and recipient nations.

Finally, more information about the relationships between a project leader's development orientation, leadership behaviour and different indicators of project effectiveness, could have implications for

the selection, training and placement of foreign aid personnel.

RESEARCH PROBLEMS

The Problem

What were the relationships among selected indicators of development project effectiveness, the development project variables of project leader developmental ethnocentricity and co-operant position power and selected contextual variables?

A schematic representation of the relationships examined is presented in Figure 1. Ethnocentricity and contextual variables were considered independent variables, position power the intervening variable and the indicators of effectiveness the dependent variables.

Sub-Problems

From the schematic presented in Figure 1 and in order to answer the main research question posed in the problem statement, the following sub-problems, posed as questions, were examined:

(1) Were project leaders developmentally ethnocentric or developmentally unethnocentric as developmental ethnocentricity was measured by the instrument developed for the purposes of this study?

(2) What degree of position power did project leaders exercise in relations with host nationals, as position power was measured by the instrument developed for this study?

(3) How did project leaders perceive the effectiveness of their development project as these perceptions were measured by the instruments developed for this purpose?

(4) What was the relationship between developmental ethnocen-

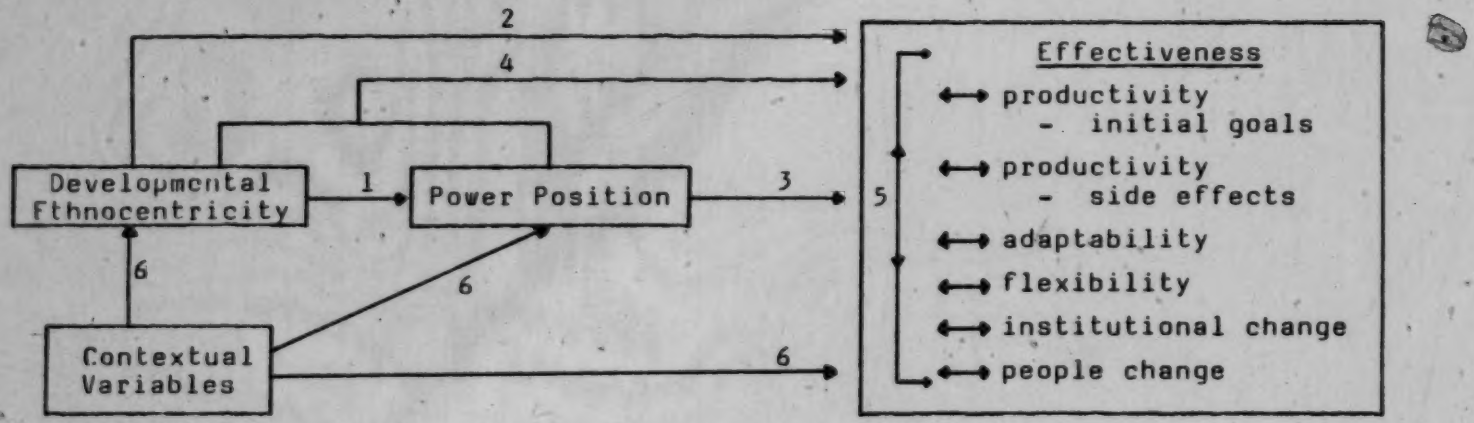

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework of Possible Relationships Between and Among Co-Operant Ethnocentricity, Co-Operant Position Power, Variables of Project Effectiveness and Contextual Variables

tricity and project leader position power on the development project?

(5) What were the relationships between developmental ethnocentricity and the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

(6) What were the relationships between project leader position power on the development project and the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

(7) What were the relationships between the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power and the selected indicators of project effectiveness?

(8) What were the relationships between the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

(9) What were the relationships between selected contextual variables and developmental ethnocentricity, position power and the development project effectiveness?

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following are definitions of terms used in this study:

Co-operant--an individual indigenous to a developed nation who had returned to his home nation after having acted as project team leader on a bilateral aid sponsored development project.

Project Team Leader/Respondent--the co-operant who was considered, from the donor agency's perspective, to be responsible for the operation of a bilateral aid sponsored development project.

Development Project--a bilateral aid sponsored venture, occurring in a developing nation for which a donor nation co-operant acted as project team leader.

Development Project Effectiveness--perceptions of project leaders regarding the (1) productivity-initial goals (2) productivity of side effects (3) adaptability (4) flexibility (5) inducement of institutional change (6) inducement of people change for the development project they worked on.

Developmental Ethnocentricity--For the purposes of this study, developmental ethnocentrism was defined as an indication of the project leader's orientation towards development as measured by the project leader's degree of support for one of the polar (liberation-dominant) development paradigms.

Position Power--an indication of the level of power exercised by a co-operant while acting as project team leader of a development project, measured by the degree to which the power potential of the project leader's position was exercised by the project leader.

Dominant Paradigm--a view of development/underdevelopment based upon Western ideals and social models in which, for example, third world social, intellectual, psychological and economic deficiencies were seen as the source of underdevelopment, and foreign aid was a major cure for this underdevelopment.

Liberation Paradigm--a view of development/underdevelopment based upon third world radical thought in which, for example, the existing relationship between developed and underdeveloped nations was seen as the main cause of underdevelopment.

Paradigm--as in Kuhn's (1970:174) concept of paradigm where paradigm was defined as ". . . the entire constellation of beliefs, values and techniques shared by members of any given community."

Counterpart--the host national assigned for training purposes to a Canadian International Development Agency (C.I.D.A.) co-operant to perform

parallel job functions, with the intention that the counterpart would assume full job responsibility when the C.I.D.A. co-operant returned to Canada.

Host National Project Member--an individual who was a citizen of the nation in which the development project was located and who was assigned by the host government to work on the development project.

ASSUMPTIONS

This study was dependent upon the following assumptions.

(1) The perception of respondents regarding the effectiveness of the development project, their developmental ethnocentricity and their power position were valid means of measuring these variables.

(2) The measures of developmental ethnocentricity used in this study were appropriate means of describing the development orientation of the respondents.

(3) The measures of project leader position power used in the study were an appropriate means of describing the power exercised by the project leader on a development project.

(4) The identified development project effectiveness variables were an appropriate means of assessing project effectiveness.

DELIMITATIONS

(1) The study was delimited by the previously stated definitions of the development project and the co-operant/respondent.

(2) Project variables relating to effectiveness were delimited

to those manipulable by the co-operant.

(3) Effectiveness indicators were delimited to those specifically related to the development project.

LIMITATIONS

A major limitation of this study was in the use of respondent perceptions, gathered by the use of a mailout questionnaire, to measure effectiveness, ethnocentricity and position power. It was recognized that perceptions were not necessarily an accurate reflection of the actual situation and that distortions were possible, particularly in this study where recall through questionnaire responses was required. It was assumed, however, that the respondent's summated perceptions were valid.

A second limitation to this study was the volume of literature and research available in the area of the development project. A plethora of development project case studies were found that were done in the context of a particular development concern (e.g. family planning) and from the perspective of a particular aid agency or agency department (e.g. World Health Organization). However, this writer found only one example of any effort to do major research on development projects in general (case studies of 11 development projects by Hirschman, 1967). In addition, what literature was available showed little agreement with regards to development project management. Furthermore, though some literature existed on development paradigms and concomitant implications for project management (e.g. Deblois, 1976), no literature or research was found that considered co-operant development orientation or leadership style in relation to development project effectiveness.

A third limitation to this study was due to the experimental nature of the instruments developed for the purposes of this study and therefore the nature of the resultant data obtained for analysis purposes. This limitation suggested that any conclusions stated on the basis of the research findings of the study be stated for heuristic purposes only and not be considered conclusive or extrapolative past the particular group of respondents used in this study.

A final limitation was in the nature of the study itself. Recent writers (Perrow, 1977; Scott, 1977) have pointed out the shortcoming of the variable approach to effectiveness research. Perrow (1977:96) pointed out that in any attempt to make a causal relationship between variables ". . . the variables had better be pretty closely linked." This writer accepted Perrow's observation as a limitation on this study: no previous research or literature has indicated or demonstrated that co-operant developmental ethnocentricity, co-operant position power or effectiveness were closely linked. Herein rested the exploratory nature of this study.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

In this chapter the main research problem and sub-problems investigated in the study, the justification for this study, the definition of terms as used in the study and the underlying assumptions, delimitations and limitations were presented. The remainder of the thesis was organized as follows:

Chapter 2 - Review of Related Literature: Effectiveness

Chapter 3 - Review of Related Literature: Developmental Ethnocentricity

Chapter 4 - Review of Related Literature: Position Power

Chapter 5 - Research Design and Methodology

Chapter 6 - Report of Return Rate and Findings: Research Questions 1, 2, and 3

Chapter 7 - Findings: Research Questions 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9

Chapter 8 - Summary of Study Findings, Conclusions, and Implications for Practice and Further Research.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE: EFFECTIVENESS

The presentation of related literature and theory is divided into three chapters: (1) effectiveness (2) ethnocentricity and (3) position power. In this chapter, related literature and theory is presented in the context of the deductive processes whereby indicators and measures of development project effectiveness were identified.

EFFECTIVENESS

Steers (1977:1) suggested that ". . . the true test of good management is its ability to organize and utilize available resources to achieve and maintain an effective level of operations." It is generally accepted that in any organizational endeavour, effectiveness is a most desirable trait. However, there is considerable confusion in the literature as to what variables constitute the indicators of an effective operation.

The first area of literature and research to be reviewed in this study was the literature and research regarding the identification of indicators of effectiveness and an appropriate measure of these effectiveness indicators for the development project.

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

A survey of the literature on organizational effectiveness suggested that though most writers agreed that organizational effectiveness

is important, very few agreed on how to conceptualize or measure it.

> There is disagreement about what properties or dimensions are encompassed by the concept of effectiveness. There is disagreement about who does or should set the criteria to be employed in assessing effectiveness. There is disagreement about what indicators are to be used in measuring effectiveness. And there is disagreement about what features of organizations should be examined in accounting for observed differences in effectiveness (Scott, 1977:64).

Several writers (Dubin, 1975:7, Goodman and Pennings, 1977:3) suggested that organizational effectiveness has different meanings depending upon the particular view held of the nature of the organization. Hassen (1976:32) identified the problem of perspective in the consideration of effectiveness and suggested that Hall's (1972:96-103) classification of three schools of thought towards effectiveness was an appropriate synthesis of the work in this area: (1) goal approach (2) systems-resource approach and (3) the multiple criterion approach. These and other classifications were considered from two perspectives: (1) end result, or those indicators that are evident as some sort of product of the development project, irrespective of the means of attaining the product and (2) process, or those indicators that can only be measured by a consideration of the operationalization of the project.

As Ghorpade (1971:2) pointed out, the task of identification of effectiveness indicators is inextricably related to these divergent approaches.

End Result Approach

The goal approach is representative of an end result approach. Goalistic indicators of effectiveness are derived from conceptualizations of the goals which the organization is expected to obtain (Ghorpade,

1971:85) and from a view of the organization as a rational set of arrangements oriented towards achieving certain goals (Goodman and Pennings, 1977:3). Although several writers, (Rice, 1964; Bass, 1952; Etzioni, 1964; Coleman, 1972) have proposed the goalistic approach they did so in recognition of its pitfalls. Bass (1952:157), for instance, suggested the following:

> Instead of evaluating the success of programs. . . solely in terms of the extent to which they serve to increase the company's productivity, profits and efficiency, it has been proposed that they also be evaluated on the extent to which they increase the worth of the organization to its members and society as a whole.

In addition, since goals may vary with point of view, one criticism often directed at the goalistic approach is the difficulty of identifying the broad ranges of goals necessary for a comprehensive consideration of effectiveness. In this regard, Perrow (1970:135) suggested five categories of organizational goals, classified by point of view: (1) societal goals (2) output goals (3) system goals (4) product goals (5) derived goals.

However, the major criticism of the goalistic approach is a criticism that can be applied more generally to a conceptualization of effectiveness based upon end result indicators. As Steers (1977:38) suggested, ". . . effectiveness viewed in terms of a general level of organizational goal attainment. . . says little to managers that assists them in assessing the quality of their day-to-day work performance." In addition, Katz and Kahn (1966:853) proposed that ". . . statements of objectives may idealize, rationalize, distort, omit or even conceal some aspects of the functioning of organizations."

Consequently, for the purposes of this study, end-result indica-

tors were considered a ". . . necessary yet insufficient condition for success" (Steers, 1977:15), and priority consideration was given to frames of reference (Perrow, 1970:135).

Process Approach

Writers and researchers on organizational effectiveness recognized that a framework for examining organizational effectiveness must be developed that permits the examination of the functional aspects of organizations. In this regard, Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum (1975:535) stated that the study of organizational effectiveness must contend not only with organizational ends but means as well. To some, this necessitated that a conceptualization of organizational effectiveness ". . . explicitly stress the relations between the organization and its environment. . . ." (Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967:897).

Whereas goals may represent end state measures of effectiveness, process measures of effectiveness indicate how effectiveness can be operationalized (Steers, 1977:38). A large number of univariate (Campbell; Steers, 1977:40-41) and multivariate (Steers, 1977:44-45) process measures have been either inductively or deductively identified. Although several of these criteria (adaptability-flexibility, productivity, satisfaction) occur more frequently than others, the wide variety of derived criteria indicates that these criteria may derive from the requirements which organizations have to meet in order to survive and/or work effectively within their unique situation (Ghorpade, 1971:86). In addition, Steers (1977:176) recognized that some criteria are not applicable to certain types of organizations. The consideration of a unique situation, or as Weiss (1972:33) suggested, the "unanticipated consequence situation"

suggests the practicality of a process approach. This process approach recognizes; (1) the desirability of multivariate interacting measures of effectiveness (Steers, 1977:47), (2) the recognition of the organization as non-static and in continual interaction with its environment and (3) the recognition of goal attainment in the concerns for effectiveness (Etzioni, 1960:265). Therefore, within the frameworks of the end-result approach and process approach to organizational effectiveness, the special situation of the development project was examined to deductively derive effectiveness indicators.

ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY IN A DEVELOPING CONTEXT

As previously pointed out, the view of an organization can determine the effectiveness criteria. Goodman and Pennings (1977:3) suggested that one view was that of the open system perspective and the concomitant concerns for the external environment. In addition, Goodman and Goodman (1977:3) pointed out that the "role of the constituent" could also influence the conceptualization of effectiveness. Therefore, before examining the specific case of the development project it was necessary to consider the end result and process approaches within the special context of a developing situation.

Environmental Considerations

Negandhi (1975:25) considered the developing situation especially condusive to an open systems perspective. This perspective has, as its central concern, a consideration of the impact of the external environment. This external environment has been conceived as the task environ-

ment, or the "part of the total environment. . . potentially relevant to goal setting and goal attainment" (Dill, 1958:405). Some writers have identified the components of the task environment while others have suggested continua for the dimensions of the task environment. For example, Emery and Trist (1965:21-31) proposed the dimension continua of "placid-randomized," "placid-clustered," "disturbed reactive" and "turbulent fields." Duncan (1972:273-291) characterized the dimensions of the environment with a four cell matrix ranging from simple-static to complex-dynamic. Jurkovitch (1974:381) was very comprehensive in suggesting a 64 cell matrix of possible organizational environments.

In relation to the developing situation, the point to be made is that the organizational environment in a developing nation is most likely to be described as "turbulent fields" (Emery and Trist), "complex-dynamic" (Campbell) or as Jurkovitch's type 64 environment.

In addition, Negandhi (1975) suggested that the organization in a developing nation faces a unique societal environment. Milne (1970: 64), for example, suggested that the obstacles to effective administration in a developing nation are mainly ". . . cultural factors which hinder attempts to introduce effective administrative practices."

The combination of the "turbulent" external task environment and the unique societal environment imposed special constraints upon the end result and process frameworks to the consideration of organizational effectiveness. Jurkovitch (1974:392) in describing his "type 64" or most turbulent environment suggested that the organization confronted with this environment will be the following:

> . . . have very abstract, tenative sets of strategies, aspirations and tactics and cannot execute them without expecting major alterations; have very vague coalitions that change unpredictably; and

are constantly redesigning decision making programs or constantly making exceptions to existing decision making programs.

Therefore, in this environmental state, it was deduced that of Campbell's (Steers, 1977:40-41) univariate process measures, the flexibility-adaptability measure was a most important effectiveness indicator and the stability indicator was of little or no concern.

However, the view of the organization in a third world context, existing in a "developing" environment, had further implications for the consideration of effectiveness indicators.

The Concept Development

Pervasive throughout any discussion concerning developing nations was the existence of a dualism in the conception of development and the concomitant divergent views on organizational theory, administrative behaviour and effectiveness. An appreciation of this dualism demonstrated the necessity for a frame of reference or point of view approach to the consideration of organizational effectiveness.

This dualism was recognized in the writings of economists (Rostow, 1970; Blaug, 1970) sociologists (Lerner, 1958; Almond, 1966; Coleman, 1965) and development administration theorists (Deblois, 1976; Riggs, 1964). The dual approaches were described respectively as neo-marxist versus modernistic, traditional versus modernistic, critical (historical) versus modernization, deficiency versus dependency and liberation versus dominant (Western). One writer (Goulet, 1971:6) went further and suggested this dualism exists between the use of the terms development and liberation. Generally, the dualism refers to the two general frames of reference from which development is viewed: from the point of view of the developed nations and from the point of view of the developing nations.

For convenience, this writer referred to the two divergent approaches as "liberation" (Deblois, 1976) versus "dominant" (Hochschild, 1978). No value judgment was intended in the use of these terms.

Underlying assumptions of the "dominant" approach to development are the following;

(1) Development is unilinear. That is, development is to become what the Western world is.

(2) Internal deficiencies in the developing nations are the real sources of underdevelopment.

(3) The relationship between developed and underdeveloped countries is favourable.

(4) The present framework for the supplying of aid and trade by developed to developing nations will further development.

Underlying assumptions of the "liberation" approach to development are the following:

(1) The concept of development is seen in an historical context whereby a nation takes charge of its own destiny.

(2) The dependency role of the developing nations in relation to the developed world is the major source of underdevelopment.

(3) The relationship between the developed and the developing world is not favourable.

(4) The existing framework for the supply of aid and trade to developing nations promulgates this unfavourable state and widens the developed-underdeveloped gap.

Various writers have identified further distinctions. For instance, Goulet (1971:6) pointed out that ". . . the first [western model] values efficiency and social control above all else, the second [liberation model] values social justice and the creation of a new man." In addition, Deblois (1976:189) suggested the following:

> Liberation writers are proposing an alternative theory of development that contrasts sharply with the purely economic approach by

> the western tradition. . . real development must be achieved by the liberation of the people, not by simply raising the standard of living for a select group.

Therefore, it was crucial that organizational theory and the use of end result and process approaches to a deduction of effectiveness indicators be considered in the context of this duality in development approaches. Kidd (1974:29) suggested that ". . . great care must be taken in applying to developing countries, models and experiences derived from western countries." Care must be taken, therefore, in the application of deductive frameworks derived from a substantially Western approach to organizational theory.

This writer suggests that the dualistic approaches to development do not negate the end result and process approaches but rather impose application constraints. Therefore, the approach of this study was, as Deblois (1976:189) suggested, "to recognize the problem for what it is," and attempted to use the end result and process approaches as frameworks to deduce from both perspectives an eclectic list of effectiveness indicators for the development project.

THE DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

The following approaches to the identification of effectiveness indicators for the development project were taken:

(1) examination of statements of purpose in the definitions of projects, to identify mainly end result variables of effectiveness.

(2) a systems perspective of the development project to identify mainly process variables of effectiveness.

(3) an examination of theories of project planning and develop-

ment administration to identify both end result and process variables.

Development Project Effectiveness

The development project was defined earlier in this study in descriptive terms as a joint venture between first and third world countries. Most definitions in the literature on development projects also contain some statement of purpose. End result indicators of project effectiveness were identified from these statements of purpose.

A summary of representative definitions of development projects is presented in Table 1. In addition, this writer suggested an end result variable that corresponds with each definition. As can be seen, the pervading purpose of the development project is change. That is, as an end result and to be considered effective, the development project must have induced some form of change. The "liberation" writers represented by Deblois (1976) suggested that this change should be in people. Other writers, such as Eisemon (1974) and Rothwell (1972), suggested that institutional or "custom" changes are the end result indicators of a project's effectiveness. Hirschman (1974) and Hayes (1959) were more general in suggesting that the criteria of a development project are the introduction of something new and the inducement of further development.

Consistent with the eclectic nature of this investigation, the following salient end result effectiveness indicators were identified from definitions of the development project:

(1) the initiation of change in some prevailing institution or practice

(2) the initiation of people change or the raising of human praxis

(3) productivity in the short term.

Table 1

Effectiveness Indicators from Functional Definitions of the Development Project

Author	Definition	Effectiveness Indicator
Chi Yuen (1972:215)	The important point to be remembered is the need to evaluate particular projects or particular reforms in relation to their system wide consequences.	(1) inducement of broad social change
Eisemon (1974:55)	There are two reasons for development projects: (i) productivity increase in the short term (ii) substantially alter customary forms and usages.	(2) productivity (3) inducement of institutional change
Deblois (1976:186)	By educational development projects we understand any joint venture...with the purpose to bring people involved to a higher level of consciousness and praxis.	(4) inducement of people change
Gaddis (Cook, 1971:4)	An organizational unit dedicated to the attainment of a goal - generally the successful completion of a development product on time, within budget and in conformance with performance specifications.	(5) efficiency (6) attainment of initial goals
Hayes (1959)	(a) results of a development project are inherent in the nature of development, that is, a development project is for development...changes in individuals, changes in social relationships and changes in social overhead capital (p.14). (b) many development projects are intended to demonstrate what is possible and feasible with the expectation that the improved techniques demonstrated will be adopted on a much larger scale (p.25).	(7) inducement of change (8) acceptance or adoption of new product

Table 1
(Continued)

Author	Definition	Effectiveness Indicator
Hirschman (1967:1)	The term connotes purposefulness, some minimum size, a specific location, the introduction of something qualitatively new, and the expectation that a sequence of further development moves will be set in motion.	(9) a new product (10) inducement of change
Rothwell (1972:17)	Projects are frequently designed to overcome bureaucratic compartmentalization or to replace agencies which have become dysfunctional or counterproductive.	(11) inducement of institutional change

Systems Approach

It was suggested that a major difficulty in the consideration of organizational effectiveness was the question of perspective. For example, from which perspective of employee or employer is an organization's effectiveness to be considered? The case of the development project, defined as a joint venture between first and third world nations which is sponsored by first world aid but occurring in the third world, represents a perspective dilemma. For example, first world consultants acting in some administrative capacity for a development project find themselves having to serve two masters: the donor nation (aid agency) and the host nation (local government and host national project team members). Therefore, the development project was considered from two different system perspectives: the temporary system and an initial system growth stage.

Temporary system. Goodman and Goodman (1976:494) defined the temporary system as ". . . a set of diversely skilled people working together on a complex task over a limited period of time." Miles (1977: 134) criticized that this definition was too limited. He (1977:135) suggested that in addition to focusing on task results, the temporary system also does the following:

(1) performs compensatory/maintenance functions for permanent systems

(2) induces change in permanent systems

(3) alters the properties of people, organizations and systems.

However, Miles (1964:440) recognized that the defining concept in a temporary system is "anticipated duration," and that the termination

point of such a system might be either time, event or state linked.

Numerous writers (Miles, 1964; Zand, 1974; Keith, 1978; Bryce, 1974; Goodman and Goodman, 1976) have recognized that the project is one example of a temporary system. In addition, the time or event linked termination is central to the concept of the aid sponsored development project. Furthermore, from the perspective of the aid co-operant (expatriate) the development project is a "pure" (Hopkirk, 1977) temporary system. That is, as a participant in the project, the co-operant is totally removed from his indigenous habitat and upon completion of the project will most likely return to his pre-project assignment work position. Therefore, a consideration of the functions and characteristics of temporary systems provided insight into possible effectiveness indicators.

Miles (1974:441-444) suggested three main functional categories of temporary systems: (1) compensation maintenance (2) short-term accomplishment (3) induction of change. This concurred with Eisemon (1974: 55) who proposed that there are deficit (increase productivity in the short run) and intrinsic (alteration of customary forms) reasons for the use of the development project. Therefore, with regards to end result effectiveness indicators, the temporary system criteria concurred with the previous definitionally identified end result indicators of the development project.

However, as suggested by Goodman and Goodman (1976:494) the more underlying reason for the need for temporary systems is the permanent systems resistance to innovation. In addition, they (1976:495) proposed that the use of temporary systems is a "not to be unexpected outcome of new environmental conditions, the turbulent field." Therefore as Keith

(1978:195) suggested, the temporary systems by the nature of their existence must be adaptive. Furthermore, as Bryce (1974:32) pointed out, it is ". . . flexibility which permits. . . [temporary systems] to deal with situations beyond the scope of more formal structures." Therefore, from a consideration of the development project as a temporary system, adaptability and flexibility were identified as salient indicators of development project effectiveness.

Initial growth stage. An alternate systems approach was to consider, from the host nation perspective, the development project as an initial system growth stage. This writer recognized the similarities between the conditions of a temporary system and those of an initial growth stage of an organization. Keith (1978:201) pointed out that "temporary systems because of their limited duration, changing composition and perpetual newness are characterized by many of the conditions of beginning organizations." However, it is the differences, rather than the similarities between the two approaches that were important in the consideration of the development project.

With regards to the project's end state, from the perspective of the host nation project members, the project does not have an abrupt time, or state linked finish. Their assignment to the project is more on a permanent basis. In addition, the different perspectives from which finances or resources that are made available to the project are viewed is another disimilarity. In this regard, Gilliland and Gilliland (1978:4) suggested that system's states can be described in terms of resource availability and the initial growth state is identified by the existence of excess resources. For the developing nation, the resources made available to the development project by the aid agency

provides a state where resources are in excess to the local funding available. Therefore, according to Gilliland and Gilliland (1978:5) the concern for this "initial succession state" is for the rapid use of resources, and therefore effectiveness should be measured in quantative terms rather than in terms of efficiency.

In summary the consideration of the development project as both a temporary system and an initial system growth stage suggested that maximum consideration be given to adaptability and flexibility as effectiveness indicators and minimum consideration be given to efficiency (e.g., cost effectiveness) indicators.

THEORIES OF PROJECT AND DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Development Administration

Another literature area from which indicators of development project effectiveness were identified were the writings on development administration. As Deblois (1976:2) pointed out, present theories of administration are grounded in studies of American and English organizations, giving them a somewhat ethnocentric character. The recognition of the biases of existing models of administration gives rise to some special considerations for the administration of development programs. These special considerations centre primarily around the question of the transferability of Western models of administration to the developing situation. Some writers, such as Negandhi (1975), supported the transferability of Western models, while others (Gunnel, 1969; Deblois, 1976:4), suggested that:

> . . . no amount of abstraction or development of models based upon mechanical or organic analogies could overcome the inherent bias

> of such models and the restricted cultural origin of categories or the tendency towards reification. . . .

In mentioning mechanical and organic "analogies," Gunnel (Deblois, 1976: 4) was referring to the use by many writers (Riggs, 1967; Thompson, 1964) of the management studies of Burns and Stalker (1961) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) as the basis for proposing that Western models can be adapted to the developing context. For example, Riggs (1967), in the development of what he called the "prismatic model" of administration in a transitional society, attempted to ". . . build up conceptual administrative themes which are culture free and of universal application" (Manon, Riggs, 1967:preface).

Considering Thompson (1964), Riggs (1967), Negandhi (1975), Milne (1970), Deblois (1976) and Rothwell (1972) as representative of the various approaches to development administration, a summary of their considerations of organizational effectiveness is presented in Table 2. In addition, this writer interpreted their effectiveness statements as specific effectiveness indicators. As can be seen, considerable disagreement existed in the literature as to what constituted effective development administration. However, what can be noted, is that adaptability and flexibility were common to most approaches.

Project Management

Rondinelli (1977:5) pointed out that there appear to be three common approaches to development project management:

(1) management science approach

(2) detailed preparation and appraisal

(3) "hidden hand" (Hirschman, 1964)

Deblois (1976) identified a fourth approach to project management: the

Table 2

Effectiveness Indicators Identified from Theories of Development Administration

Author	Approach	Effectiveness Indicators
Deblois (1976)	- Western models are inapplicable to the development context...knowledge, techniques and methods...would have to be recreated and reinvented (p.191)	1. Decentralization 2. Shared decision making 3. High interpersonal communication 4. Culturally based objectives
Milne (1970)	- ...the obstacles to effective administration in developing countries are mainly cultural - ...administration must be both mechanistic and organic as the culture prescribes (p.64)	Adaptability and flexibility
Negandhi (1975)	- Behavioural and productive approach to effectiveness - Nature of the market and economic conditions necessitate behavioural approach (p.20)	1. Satisfaction, turnover, morale, absenteeism 2. Interpersonal relations 3. Interdepartmental relations 4. Manpower utilization 5. Adaptation to external environment
Riggs (1964)	- Prismatic theory - Formalism, ritualism, rationalism are detrimental to development administration	Adaptability to cultural norms
Rothwell (1972)	- The problem of administration and management in developing economies arise from a rapid change of expectations which is not matched by appropriate organizational and institutional change	Adaptability and flexibility

Table 2

(Continued)

Author	Approach	Effectiveness Indicators
Thompson (1964)	- Administrative practices and principles of the west have derived from pre-occupation with control and therefore have little value for development administration where the need is for adaptive administration that can incorporate constant change (p.91) - The ideal must be adaptation and this involves creativity and looseness of definition and structure (p.94)	Adaptability and flexibility

liberation approach as applied to project management.

Inherent in each of these approaches are divergent considerations of project effectiveness.

Management science. Cook (1971) presented an informative overview of the management science approach to project management. He (1971:57) suggested that the concept of control ". . . as a case of evaluating. . . initial decisions and revising them in order to achieve the original objectives. . .," is central to the operation of management systems. In addition, Cook (1974:61) suggested that the basis of the systems approach is the ". . . defining of the project in terms of carefully hierarched objectives." He pointed out that linked to these objectives are established time, cost and performance standards and that proper control ensures that any deviations from these established performance standards will be corrected.

Therefore, from the management system approach, the end result effectiveness indicator was identified as the achievement of prestated project objectives and the process indicator identified as control.

Detailed preparation and appraisal. Project appraisal from the perspective of an aid agency such as the World Bank is primarily an a priori appraisal done for selection purposes. Ripman (1964:178) suggested that when the World Bank is asked to finance a development project it is ". . . subjected to exhaustive investigation from many points of view." Ripman (1964:178) further suggested that the concerns are for project success in terms of its contribution to economic development and in order to ensure this contribution, an a priori analysis of the project circumstances must be made. Therefore, effectiveness indicators are those

related to variations on rate-of-return to investment considerations. For example, Alexander and Simmons (1975:7) proposed the use of an "Educational Production Function" to identify schooling inputs that will have significant impacts on schooling outcomes. That is, which inputs will provide the greatest rate-of-return per unit investment? Therefore, project evaluation is concerned primarily with the issues of efficiency.

Hidden hand. Hirschman (1974) examined eleven World Bank sponsored projects. His study was the only example of comprehensive research on the development project in general that was found in an extensive literature search. Therefore, his exploratory study was important as a source of inductively-derived conclusions regarding development project behaviour.

Hirschman (1964:7) agreed with the critics of the end result approach to effectiveness:

> Cost benefit analysis, rate-of-return, rate-of-interest appropriate for discounting and other techniques are considered secondary aspects of project appraisal in that they say little about project behaviour.

Consequently Hirschman's observations generally referred to what this writer has labelled process variables of effectiveness.

Hirschman (1964:13) proposed the principle of the "hidden hand." This principle was based upon the assumption that all projects are problem ridden and that all projects face ". . . a set of possible and unsuspected threats to their profitability and existence" (Hirschman, 1964:11). But although unforeseen difficulties exist, the principle also suggested that there exists unforeseen creativity to handle the unforeseen difficulty (Hirschman, 1964:13). Consequently, the difference between projects that are "more or less successful in overcoming their troubles" (Hirsch-

man, 1964:1) is between those that are able to be creative in finding solutions to the unforeseen problems and those that are not. An adaptive and flexible project will be able to provide the "creative solutions" to the unforeseen problems.

In addition to adaptability and flexibility as process effectiveness indicators, Hirschman (1964) also suggested the consideration of "side effects" with regards to project effectiveness. Other writers (Hayes, 1959:21) have also pointed out that the immediate concrete results of a development project are often less significant than later, less tangible results. Hirschman (1964:160) went further in suggesting that "some of the side effects turn out to be inputs essential to the realization of the project's purpose." Therefore, from Hirschman's (1964) observations, the existence of project side effects which are both end result/output variables and input/process variables could be an indicator of project success.

Liberation approach. Finally, from the liberation perspective described earlier, Deblois (1976:192-201) identified the following criteria for an effective development project:

> (1) A project in the liberation mode would require equal participation in the planning and implementation of all phases of the project (p.194).
>
> (2) Leadership emphasizes above all, communication with the subordinates and sharing of goals and ideas. This type of leadership also provides the flexibility. . . to bring the project to a successful conclusion (p.195).
>
> (3) A development project committed to liberation objectives has to respect the individual's right to make decisions and should give itself a structure which permits the right to be exercised (p.196).
>
> (4) Participatory decision making also implies. . . . a commitment to decentralization of power (p.196).

Therefore, from the "liberation" perspective, decentralization and flexibility appeared to be two of the most important effectiveness indicators of development project management.

A summary of the effectiveness indicators identified from the approaches to development project planning is presented in Table 3.

SUMMARY OF EFFECTIVENESS INDICATORS

An eclectic list of the effectiveness indicators that were identified is presented in Table 4. As with any eclectic listing, there were redundancies and some indicators that were unique to one approach. In addition, some indicators were antithetical. For example, where detailed appraisal (Ripman) suggested efficiency indicators, the consideration of the development project as an initial growth stage (Gilliland and Gilliland, 1978) suggested that efficiency is of no concern. For the purposes of analysis, this eclectic list of effectiveness indicators was separated into (1) process and end result indicators and (2) liberation and dominant approach indicators. Therefore, process and end result indicators for each of the liberation and dominant approaches are listed in Table 5.

This writer concluded that, of the process indicators identified, all were either a product of, or a criterion for, adaptability and flexibility. That is, shared decision making, interpersonal communications, employee morale and satisfaction were criteria for adaptability and flexibility (Mott, 1970), while control and the use of side effects were facilitated by the existence of adaptability and flexibility (Hirschman, 1964; Cook, 1972). Therefore, adaptability and flexi-

Table 3

Effectiveness Indicators Identified from Approaches to Development Project Administration

Approach	Author	Effectiveness Indicators
Management Science	Cook (1971)	1. Control 2. Achievement of pre-stated goals
Liberation	Deblois (1976)	3. Decentralization at all levels 4. Flexibility 5. Shared decision making 6. An increase in human consciousness
Hidden Hand	Hirschman (1964)	7. Adaptability and flexibility 8. Side effects that are both inputs and outputs
Detailed Preparation and Appraisal	Ripman (1964) Alexander and Simmons (1975)	9. Rate of return 10. Efficiency

Table 4

Eclectic List of Effectiveness Indicators

Source	Effectiveness Indicator
Organizational Effectiveness (Steers, 1977)	1. Adaptability and flexibility
	2. Production
	3. Satisfaction
Turbulent Environment (Jurkovitch, 1974)	4. Adaptability and flexibility
Development Paradigms	5. Liberation and raising of human consciousness
	6. Efficiency and social control
Definitions of Development Projects	7. Productivity
	8. Inducement of institutional and people change
	9. Efficiency
	10. Attainment of initial goal
	11. Adoption of product by permanent organization
Systems Approach	12. Adaptability and flexibility
	13. Rapid use of resources
Theories of Development Administration	14. Adaptability and flexibility
	15. Decentralization
	16. Shared decision making
	17. Interpersonal communication
	18. Achievement of culturally based objectives
Theories of Project Planning and Management	19. Control
	20. Efficiency
	21. Adaptability and flexibility
	22. Side effects that are both inputs and outputs
	23. An increase in human consciousness

Table 5

Summary of Development Project Effectiveness Indicators

LIBERATION		DOMINANT	
Process	End Result	Process	End Result
1. adaptability and flexibility	1. liberation and an increase in human consciousness	1. adaptability and flexibility	1. efficiency
2. shared decision making	2. inducement of change	2. morale and satisfaction	2. production
3. interpersonal communication	3. achievement of culturally based objectives	3. interpersonal communication	3. attainment of initial goals
4. side effects that are inputs to development		4. control	4. side effects as outputs
		5. side effects that are process inputs	5. inducement of institutional change
ADAPTABILITY AND FLEXIBILITY	INDUCEMENT OF CHANGE (PEOPLE)	ADAPTABILITY AND FLEXIBILITY	1. PRODUCTION (a) initial goals (b) side effects 2. INDUCEMENT OF CHANGE (INSTITUTIONAL)

bility were regarded as universal process indicators of effectiveness for the development project.

With regards to end result variables, distinctions were made for perspective. Both the liberation and dominant perspectives shared the concern for the inducement of change. However, the liberation perspective was primarily concerned with human change as liberation or an increase in human consciousness (Deblois, 1976), while the dominant perspective was primarily concerned with the inducement of structural, custom or institutional change.

In addition, more prevalent as an effectiveness indicator from the dominant perspective were the concerns of productivity in terms of initial goals. That is, productivity in reaching initial goals that serve deficit (Eisemon, 1974) needs was an important effectiveness indicator. Also identified, although of concern primarily from the dominant perspective, was the productivity indicator with respect to the side effects of the development project's operation.

MEASUREMENT OF EFFECTIVENESS INDICATORS

Process Indicators

Adaptability and flexibility were identified as the salient effectiveness indicators from the process perspective. Gibson et. al. (1973:23) suggested that "Adaptiveness is a broader concept than either productivity, conformity or morale and is actually a principle element of systems theory." From a system's perspective several researchers have proposed measures of flexibility and adaptability. However, it should be noted that some writers have considered adaptability and flexi-

bility as separate measures. For example, Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum (1957:538) defined flexibility (adaptability) as the organization's ability to adjust to changes, internally and externally induced. However, Mott (1972) identified adaptability as two separate measures. For purposes of this study, Mott's approach, that considered flexibility a special form of adaptability, was taken.

Mott (1972) used four questions dealing with adaptability and one with flexibility. He (1972:18) suggested that adaptability has two phases: symbolic and behavioural adaptation. Symbolic adaptation refers to awareness and behavioural to action. Therefore, Mott (1972:20) developed a specific question to measure each of the following effectiveness criteria:

(1) Organizing centres of power to change routines:

(i) Symbolic Adaptation

a) anticipating problems in advance and developing satisfactory and timely solutions to them

b) staying abreast of new technologies and methods applicable to the job.

(ii) Behavioural Adaptation

a) prompt acceptance of solutions

b) prevalent acceptance of solutions

(2) Organizing centres of power to cope with temporally unpredictable overloads of work (flexibility).

In addition, Hassen (1976) identified Mott's (1972) effectiveness indicators of adaptability and flexibility as most useful to a human service organization and modified Mott's instrument to measure effectiveness in a community college situation. This writer concluded that Mott's instrument could be similarly modified to measure the adapta-

bility and flexibility of the development project. Wording of the individual questions could be changed to suit the specific situation of the development project.

Finally, the Mott (1972) instrument was shown by both Mott in original form and Hassen (1976) in modified form to have been a "valid and inexpensive measure" (Mott, 1972:199) of organizational effectiveness. Reliability of the instrument was demonstrated by a test-retest situation in which a reliability co-efficient of .68 was obtained (Mott, 1976: 199). Furthermore, Hassen (1976:73) demonstrated that his effectiveness instrument (a modification of Mott's) represented a high degree of construct validity.

End Result Indicators

Mott (1972) recognized that productivity measures of effectiveness were often given priority consideration over other possible effectiveness measures. He (1972:22) suggested that three measures of productivity were (1) quantity (2) quality and (3) efficiency. These three measures could be applied to the development project with the condition that they be applied to both deficit (Eisemon, 1974) and side effect production. All three measures could be applied to deficit (initial goal) production while the efficiency measure could be dropped in applying these measures to side effect production. Therefore, Mott's previously validated instrument was adapted to the measurement of productivity for the development project.

Finally, for the measurement of the inducement of change effectiveness indicator, consideration was given to the type of change identified by dominant or liberation perspectives of development. There-

fore, this writer concluded that the following provided adequate measures of the inducement of change indicators of development project effectiveness:

(1) The amount and extent of institutional change perceived to have resulted from a project's operation.

(2) The amount and extent of people change perceived to have resulted from a project's operation.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the literature concerned with indicators of effectiveness for the development project was reviewed. Theory and research was outlined in the following areas: organizational effectiveness, development administration, project management, temporary systems, and development paradigms. The following indicators of development project effectiveness were identified: production-initial goals, production-side effects, adaptability, flexibility, institutional change and people change.

In addition, Mott's (1972) instrument to measure organizational effectiveness was identified as modifiable for the purposes of this study.

Chapter 3

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE: DEVELOPMENTAL ETHNOCENTRICITY

There has been a considerable upsurge in recent years in the conceptualization of development. More specifically, as Gerin-Lajoie (1971:1) suggested, "The rich country model of development is being challenged on a global scale." The reasons for this challenge grew primarily from the well documented failure of the applicability of post-World War II reconstruction and European development plans to the third world situation (Foster-Carter, 1974:77). That is, the failure of significant economic development in the third world [in fact, a negative growth has occurred relative to the first world (Hensman, 1971)] has resulted in a re-examination of the prevailing development theories and the concomitant manifestations of these theories as evident in approaches to development aid, trade, and administration.

In addition, some writers (Sachs, 1976; Van Nieuwenhuijze, 1969) suggested that a particular perspective of development may represent a certain degree of ethnocentrism, or, ". . . the degree to which things are seen as though the group to which one belongs is the centre of everything" (Sachs, 1976:5). The literature and research reviewed in this chapter is related to the following:

(1) The consideration of the divergent approaches to development as degrees of a form of ethnocentricity.

(2) The development of a conceptualization and appropriate measure of the concept of developmental ethnocentricity.

THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT/UNDERDEVELOPMENT

An examination of the literature in the area of development theories provided a plethora of descriptive terms to describe these different theories: economic theories, welfare theories, empiricism, subjectivism, evolutionary theory, neo-marxist theory, marxist theory, modernization theory, psychological theories, deficiency theories, dependency, progressivism, ethnocentrism, critical, and dominant theories, are those that this writer encountered. However, pervasive throughout the development literature was an obvious dichotomy between what Hochschild (1978:3) called the "dominant" paradigm towards development and the paradigm of third world dissenters. Hochschild (1978:6) suggested that the "dominant" paradigm ". . . is rooted in the objective consciousness of Western intellectual tradition," and that the third world "dissenters" paradigm, though not as yet as articulated and operationalized as the "dominant" paradigm, has as its source a third world consciousness and perspective.

To provide an analytic framework for the explication of the divergent approaches to development, the representative literature on both paradigmatic approaches was examined to answer the following questions:

(1) What are the indicators of development?

(2) What are the approaches to development? (Solutions to underdevelopment)

(3) What are the causes of underdevelopment?

Indicators of Development

Historically, development has been conceptualized in economic terms. As numerous writers (Foster-Carter, 1974; Hochschild, 1978;

Mrydal, 1968) have pointed out, the economists took charge of the formulation of development strategies after World War II and consequently the ends of development have historically been econometric measures. In the 1960s there was a growing concern for social and human development objectives as well, but as Hochschild (1978:4) suggested, ". . . the development models as they exist are essentially economic growth models." Mrydal (1968:154) proposed that the fundamental change has actually been from the concerns for "capital input/output" relations to the concerns for "human capital" formation. With regards to the various economic indicators of development, Rostow (1970) proposed that development required the passing through various stages of economic growth from a traditionally economically stagnant society to a mass consumption society reflective of the developed world. Therefore, high per capita incomes, a strong manufacturing sector and most importantly ". . . the existence and successful activity of some groups in the society which accepts the borrower's risk, an elite entrepreneurial class. . . ." (Rostow, 1970:216), are indications that development will take place. Similarly, Hagen (Zeylstra, 1975:112) identified two criteria for development: (1) level of per capita income and (2) state of technical development.

However, other writers have suggested that development be considered from a sociological perspective. Hoselitz (1960:24), for example, proposed that "What is needed. . . is not merely a theory of economic growth in purely economic terms, but a theory relating economic development to cultural change." Using three of Parson's (1950) pattern variables, Hoselitz (1960:29-41) suggested that developed nations could be characterized by high levels of achievement (as a norm for acquiring economic goals), universalism (in the distribution of economic roles) and

specificity (in the performance of economically related tasks). Similarly, Lerner (1958:47), having pointed out that "the west is what [developing nations] seek to become," proposed that "modernization" or the "infusion of a rational and positivistic spirit" is the criterion of development.

A third conceptualization of development used what are referred to as psychological indicators. For example, McClelland (1964:42) proposed (and researched) the hypothesis that developed and developing nations could be distinguished by their differing degrees of "achievement motivation." By measuring indicators of the achievement motivation as identified in a nation's children story books, McClelland demonstrated that the achievement motivation level of the U.S. was significantly higher than the achievement motivation level of nations with less economic growth. Therefore, where development was equated with economic growth, achievement motivation level was considered as being linked to economic growth.

Other writers, viewing development from the third world rather than the "Western" or first world perspective, have suggested rather different indicators of development. For example, Frankel (Zeylstra, 1975: 112) pointed out that ". . . the mere calculation of accounting relations cannot in itself answer and should not be expected to answer the questions which are not in the realm of measurement." He continued, suggesting that "To speak of development is to assume that the society . . . is proceeding . . . towards a more desirable state of affairs than that now being experienced." Also critical of the economic approach to development, Mrydal (Zeylstra, 1975:114) pointed out that ". . . analysis of development in economic terms can produce valid and useful results in

the rich western countries but that judgement cannot be accurately applied in most developing countries." In addition, Van Nieuwenhuijze (1969:19) suggested that such development models based upon western ideals were ethnocentric in that "the underdeveloped peoples of today are simply assumed to be where "our" forebearers were ages ago. Consequently their primary need is to catch up with us. Moreover, we are the ones who are in a position to tell them how to do this." Zeylstra (1975:145) also pointed out that development is a concept that has meaning only in a western context. For this reason, Deblois (1976:9) considered the term liberation to be more reflective (than the term development) of third world thought since ". . . liberation seems to express better, both the hopes of oppressed people and the fullness of a view in which man is seen, not as a passive element but as the agent of history." Therefore, the raising of human consciousness and the creation of man as a being of praxis are the indicators of liberation (development). Therefore, as Hensman (1971:72) pointed out, "human dignity and freedom are better indicators. . . [of development]. . . than income."

A further examination of the causes and solutions to underdevelopment as identified from the perspectives of the polar paradigms of development (dominant - Hochschild, 1978; liberation - Deblois, 1976) more clearly demonstrated the operational divergence of the two approaches.

Causes and Solutions: Underdevelopment

The liberation paradigms (including or representing the descriptors critical, third world, and neo-marxist) have evolved from an opposition to the dominant (including or representing the descriptors western, modernization, first world, capitalist) paradigm. The frequent

use of the descriptor "critical" suggested that the most productive approach to examining the divergent approaches to the causes and solutions to underdevelopment, was to identify the approaches inherent in the dominant paradigms and then present the liberation paradigm's criticisms of this approach. Two writers, Zeylstra (1975) and Nash (1963) provided convenient frameworks for the analysis of the approaches of the dominant paradigm.

Dominant paradigm. Nash (1963:1-5) suggested that there are three "modes" of attacking the problems of social change and economic development:

> (1) Index method: The general features of a developed country are abstracted as an ideal type and then contrasted with the equally ideal typical features of a poor economy and society. Development is viewed as the transformation of one type to another.
>
> (2) Acculturation mode: The west diffuses knowledge, skills, organization, values, technology and capital to a poor nation, until over time, its society, culture and personnel become varients of that which made the Atlantic community economically successful.
>
> (3) Analysis of process mode: This approach suggests a full accounting of the political, social and cultured context of development.

Frank (1969:76) pointed out that Nash's first mode sets up the typical characteristics of development. The second mode concerns itself with how these characteristics will be diffused from a developed nation to an underdeveloped one. The third describes the acculturalization process required for the first two to be successful in promoting development. Hoselitz (1960), who proposed the pattern variable dichotomies to characterize developed and developing nations, is an example of the index approach, as is McClelland (1964) with his achievement motivation dichotomy.

Zeylstra (1975:117) described writers with this approach as

empiricists and identified Leibenstein (Zeylstra, 1975:117), who devised an elaborate list of the characteristics of underdevelopment, as an example. Furthermore, Freyssinet (Zeylstra, 1975:117) pointed out that empiricists ". . . endeavouring to compare lists of criteria for underdevelopment, were unconsciously prompted by their western origin and outlook to do so in the form of a catalogue of the principal differences between the observed countries and their own." He (Zeylstra, 1975:118) continued to suggest that this was evident in the nature of the terminology used: poor housing, low levels of techniques, old fashioned methods, inadequate transportation.

Therefore, approaches to underdevelopment from the index or empiricist's approach are based upon the following assumptions or value premises.

(1) the inferiority of underdevelopment when compared with the the state of development in the advanced countries.

(2) present level of development in advanced countries and the corresponding type of society should be taken as a model and be accepted as an objective by the underdeveloped countries (Zeylstra, 1977:117).

(3) underdevelopment and development are associated only with the characteristics of the simple majority of societal roles, and not with the structure of that society.

(4) the system can be changed by changing some of its parts or their characteristics (Frank, 1969:37).

Nash's (1963:1-5) second mode referred to the diffusion of capital, technology (knowledge and skills) and institutions (including values and organizations) from developed nations to underdeveloped nations. The approaches to underdevelopment suggested by Lerner (1958), Rostow (1970) and McClelland (1964) are representative of diffusion solutions to underdevelopment. For instance, Rostow (1970:216) proposed the

injection of foreign capital to assist the "take-off" into economic growth. Lerner (1968:61) suggested that urbanization, literacy and media participation were the solutions to underdevelopment. McClelland (1964) identified western business potential as identified by a "high achievement motive," as a diffusionable solution to underdevelopment. As Frank (1969:48) pointed out, all of these approaches have two basic assumptions:

> (1) the belief that it is obstacles or resistance to these diffusions within the developing nation that causes underdevelopment to remain.
>
> (2) the acceptance and promotion of passivity in the peoples of the underdeveloped world in welcoming the diffusion of foreign aid and not themselves inquiring into and removing the causes of underdevelopment.

Zeylstra's (1975:140) contemporary-evolutionary mode represents a third general approach to underdevelopment and its solutions. Nash's (1963) process mode can be included within the broader framework of Zeylstra's examination of this approach. Zeylstra (1975:140) proposed that from the evolutionary approach, progress is seen as a social change towards modernity, where modernity views ". . . change as a continuum between two poles: traditional underdevelopment and modern development." In addition, he (1975:141) pointed out that the use of the evolutionary theory was conditional upon the acceptance by the third world of the western view of life. He (1975:140) further suggested that there are two main branches of the evolutionary approach:

> (1) One branch treats the transition from the traditional (economically advanced) society with a primarily negative emphasis in terms of removing institutional obstacles to development.
>
> (2) A second branch. . . treats the transition. . . with a positive emphasis in terms of creating the cultural environment necessary for development.

Approaches to the analysis of social requisites for development, such as entrepreneurship (Rostow) achievement motivation (McClelland) and particularism (Hoselitz) provided some specific solutions to underdevelopment from the evolutionary perspective. However, all variants of the approach were based upon the following assumptions:

(1) Developing nations will do well to study the historical sequence of western growth. (Lerner, 1958:46)

(2) In the traditional-modern dichotomy, traditional is defined negatively and modernity is equated with development. (Zeylstra, 1975:141)

(3) The west is what developing nations seek to become. (Lerner, 1958:47)

(4) Problems of development are localized in the developing nations. (McClelland, 1964:44)

Liberation paradigm. The fourth approach included in this review is what will be referred to as the "liberation" mode (Deblois, 1976) to include all critics of the previously described "dominant" modes. As Hochschild (1978:7) pointed out, the third world is "stumbling" along in its efforts to articulate and operationalize a new paradigm of development. However, consistent throughout the liberation literature is an opposition and a criticism of the various assumptions underlying the dominant modes. Deblois (1976:40) suggested that these liberation writers ". . . share a common approach in rejecting the positivistic paradigm for its inadequacies in studying the social world."

The underlying criticism appears to be of the western scientific method of knowing and validating reality. In this regard, Hochschild (1978:6) suggested that ". . , the [western scientific method] is a system preoccupied with a method of knowing, with how reality is perceived and validated rather than what one perceives. . . such a rigid

methodology excludes important dimensions of human experience." Therefore, Deblois (1976:7) proposed that the most adequate way to explain man's behaviour is to understand the state of his consciousness. Thus, some third world spokesmen in attempting to reverse the trends of the dominant development paradigm have considered development in social and human terms. In addition, from a liberation perspective, underdevelopment was not seen as "absolute and relative material deprivation," but as a relational condition: ". . . the byproduct of the dynamic relationship between the poor and the developed countries" (Hochschild, 1978:3). Furthermore, as Zeylstra (1975:118) pointed out, ". . . others searching for a general concept of underdevelopment no longer view it as an inferior degree of development, but as an independent phenomenon only by its origin historically related to western development." It was upon the basis of these two (Hochschild, 1978; Zeylstra, 1975) fundamental differences between the liberation and dominant paradigms that the critics of the dominant modes built their attack.

With regards to the "index mode," Rostow's (1970) capital infusion and strong entrepreneural class solutions to underdevelopment have been criticized from many perspectives. Grant (1972:137), Frank (1968:37), Foster-Carter (1974:84) and others have pointed out that the "trickle down" theory of development, whereby the poor supposedly benefit from economic growth or policies benefiting the rich, has not worked. In addition, Griffith's (Foster-Carter, 1974:85) work in Latin America suggested that foreign capital actually diminishes domestic saving and capital formation. Frank (1968:45) also pointed out that between 1950 and 1965, while $9.0 billion of investment flowed to developing nations

from the U.S., $25.6 billion capital profit flowed back to the U.S. from these developing nations: a net inflow from the poor to the rich of $16.6 billion. Frank (1968:35-37) was also critical of Hoselitz (1960) and the consideration of underdevelopment in terms of pattern variables, pointing out that this approach ". . . ignores structure and especially the structure of underdevelopment." Furthermore, Van Nieuwenhuijze (1969:18) was quite explicit in proposing that the value assumptions underlying the index or empiricist's mode were ethnocentric. Therefore, the liberation mode rejects dichotomized characterizations of developed/underdeveloped such as those proposed by Hoselitz (1968) and Leibenstein (Zeylstra, 1975:117).

Similarly, in questioning the acculturalization (diffusion) mode, the critical writers have identified a basic theoretical difference in the dominant and liberation approaches. That is, the diffusion mode implies that the developing peoples are passive in their acceptance of development from the "metropolis of the advanced countries" (Frank, 1968:48). This passivity is in direct conflict with the liberation perspective of the development of praxis (DeBlois, 1976). In addition, the diffusion approach has been described as western ethnocentricity, on the basis of the diffusion approach assumption that western values are normal and development will follow the diffusion of these values into a developing society.

Finally, all liberation writers expressed disagreement with the solutions to development proposed from the evolutionary mode. Foster-Carter (1974:81) pointed out that the dominant theory ". . . assumes that development is a process of evolution from traditional to modern." Therefore development became a question of how "we" can make "them"

more like "us." He pointed out that this mode ignores two underlying assumptions of the liberation thinking: the historical context of underdevelopment and the developing world's relationship with the developed world. In this regard, Foster-Carter (1974:81) suggested that ". . . the evasion of the (historical) role of developed countries in causing and perpetuating underdevelopment enables development theorists to blame the people of underdeveloped countries for their plight." In addition, Deblois (1976:9), in proposing the term liberation rather than development, expressed the similar view that ". . . liberation seems to express better both the hopes of oppressed people and the fullness of a view in which man is seen not as a passive element but as the agent of history." This supports Hochschild's (1978:3) contention that underdevelopment is relational rather than an absolute condition and therefore the primary cause of underdevelopment is the "cultural, social, political and intellectual powerlessness" that is manifested in underdeveloped nations due to the dominant paradigm. Therefore the underlying assumptions of the evolutionary mode were refuted on the grounds that they ignored both the historical and present relationship of developing to developed nations as a major factor in promulgating underdevelopment.

Therefore, solutions to development from a liberation perspective included the following:

(1) improve income distribution (Grant, 1972:142)

(2) land reform (Grant, 1972:142)

(3) tailor social services to reach the great majority, not just a privileged few people

(4) revolution (Deblois, 1976; Foster-Carter, 1974)

(5) raising of human consciousness and the development of praxis (Deblois, 1976)

(6) attainment of normative and structural control to determine the outcomes of their own response to social forces (Hochschild, 1978)

(7) a re-examination of the role of foreign capital and aid inputs as promulgators of dependency (Foster-Carter, 1974).

In addition, Frank (1968:78) proposed three general alternative theories of development:

(1) An adequate alternative theory will have to come to terms with the history and contemporary reality of development and underdevelopment.

(2) An alternative theory must reflect the structure and development of the system which has given rise to, now maintains, and still increases both structural development and structural underdevelopment as simultaneous and mutually produced manifestations of the same process.

(3) An alternative policy for economic development will have to be politically more revolutionary and help the peoples of underdeveloped countries to take the destruction of the structure and the development of another system into their own hands.

In summary, this section of the chapter identified the underlying assumptions of polar paradigms of development with regards to sources and solutions of underdevelopment. Implications of these polar paradigms for the consideration of foreign aid and organizational theory are presented in the next section.

IMPLICATIONS OF PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

With regards to the divergent approaches to the questions of development and underdevelopment, it has been suggested that an individual's or nation's orientation towards development could influence to no small degree the operationalization of theories of development and underdevelopment.

Foreign Aid

Considering the two polar paradigms of dominant and liberation approaches, it can be generally stated that the former considers aid as instrumental to development while the latter considers aid as a possible source of underdevelopment. In between these extremes are considerations for the manner and forms in which aid is supplied. For instance, Hochschild (1978:4) recognized the detrimental effects of the present aid situation but continued to suggest that it is not aid itself but the "monopolization and bureaucratization" of aid that is harmful. In addition, not all writers who supported the use of foreign aid as a development tool agreed with an Agency for International Development (A.I.D.) writer (O.D.I., 1966:91) who suggested that aid should and could be used by donor nations as a tool for "influence, leverage, and persuasion." Within the approach that aid is a useful development tool, a debate rages over the tying (untying) of foreign aid (Malkin, 1978:12). Therefore, approaches to foreign aid can be divided into three general areas:

(1) Those who believe that aid in any form promulgates western domination.

(2) Those who believe that aid can benefit the third world but with some operational limitations.

(3) Those who believe that aid is the key to development due to the power and influence it provides the donor over the process of development.

This writer concluded that a useful indicator of an individual's (institution's) position on the continuum between the first and third approaches above was the orientation of this individual (institution) towards the question of aid tying. Therefore, the question of tying-untying aid required further consideration.

Tied aid refers to assistance provided on the condition that

goods and services will be provided only by suppliers in the donor country. The untying of aid means allowing suppliers in all or a number of developing countries to compete against suppliers in the donor country for aid-financed orders (Malkin, 1978:16). An examination of the reasons for and against tied aid suggested that those who argued for tied aid did so mainly in consideration of the benefits accrued to the donor nation from the tying of aid. Those who argued in favour of untying aid did so mainly in consideration of the benefits accrued to the recipient nation by the untying. Statements representing the arguments for and against aid tying are listed below. The degree to which an individual (institution) agrees with or supports these statements could provide an indication of the end of the liberation-dominant orientation to development continuum at which they exist.

For tied aid (Malkin, 1978:16):

(1) Tied aid helps protect the balance of payments and provides employment in Canada.

(2) If aid is untied, individual Canadian manufacturers would experience potential losses leading to layoffs.

(3) Tied aid can lead to more visible Canadian projects in the third world.

(4) Tied aid is necessary due to the inefficiency and corruption prevalent in recipient nations which would make it difficult for them to, among other things, call tenders efficiently.

Against tied aid (Malkin, 1978:16):

(1) Untied aid maximizes the real value of the aid by allowing the recipient to procure goods and services from the cheapest available source.

(2) Goods and services supplied under tied aid cost more than similar goods and services offered on the international market.

(3) Untying aid would only reduce Canada's manufacturing, employment and output by 0.2%.

(4) Tied aid reinforces the tendency to provide goods and services that are technologically unappropriate.

(5) National image is enhanced by untying aid.

In addition to the orientation towards foreign aid, this writer identified attitudes towards organizational theory, specifically towards administrative aspects of organizational theory, as a second important area where the operationalization of development theories can be examined.

Organizational Theory

Deblois (1976), in his thesis "An Emerging Model of Organization," provided a most comprehensive examination of divergent considerations of organization and administration from what he referred to as the "western" and "dialectical" paradigms. From Deblois (1976) and other writers who have considered organizational theory and administration in a developing situation, a predominant theme could be identified as the degree of transferability of western based tenets of organizational theory and administration to the developing context. Deblois' (1976:5) liberation model purported that transferability should not be considered viable since ". . . an attempt to understand organizations from a simple set of values, ideas or universal laws is bound to failure. . . therefore more effective models will eventually emerge from the third world peoples themselves." Therefore, from the perspective of the aid co-operant, the least ethnocentric belief would be that western models of organization and administration should not be considered to any degree transferable to the developing situation. That is, organizations must not be viewed as structures or entities, but as ". . . cultural artifacts dependent

upon specific meaning and intentions of people within them" (Greenfield; Deblois, 1976:6). Administratively, Deblois (1976:195) suggested that leadership providing a dialogical communications model ". . . establishing the link between human communication on the one hand and human growth and liberation on the other," was necessary. This implied open relationships, communication at all levels, and shared decision making as administrative priorities.

Other writers in this area have considered organizational theory more from the dominant paradigm perspective. The differences among the various dominant approaches were identified mainly as the degree to which the socio-cultural environment was considered as a constraint upon the transferability of western organizational and administrative models. For instance, Negandhi (1975), in an empirical study of 126 industrial firms located in seven countries, suggested that there was no causal relationship between socio-cultural variables and organizational effectiveness. Milne (1970:64) on the other hand proposed that socio-cultural variables were most important in that they could negate the effective transfer of either organic (lateral or mutual control) or mechanistic (control from above) models to the developing context. He (1970:61) continued to suggest that ". . . one hypothesis would be that successful organizations in developing countries have features of both organic and mechanistic models." In addition, Riggs (1964) proposed that neither ritualism (the following of tradition) nor rationalism (the copying of developed societies) are proper as techniques followed "as ends in themselves irrespective of their relevance to the context in which they are introduced." This "context" mentioned by Riggs and other writers

favouring the dominant perspective referred to the turbulent environment of the developing situation. Therefore, as Rothwell (1972:3) pointed out, ". . . the problems of administration and management in developing economies arise from a rapid change in expectations which is not matched by appropriate and institutional change."

Therefore, approaches to organizational theory and administration could be divided into the following general areas representing an increasing degree of ethnocentricity on behalf of western individuals (institutions):

(1) The belief that in no way can western models of organizations or administration be applied to the developing context.

(2) The belief that administrative deficiencies and inefficiencies are the main barriers to the operation of a successful development program; therefore:

a) within the constraints of the socio-cultural environment and the turbulent environment of the developing nation, western models of organization and administration can be adapted to the developing context to overcome these deficiencies

b) models of organization and administration successful in the western context can be directly applied to the developing situation.

In summary, this section examined the operationalization of theories of development as evident in approaches to foreign aid and organizational theory. It was suggested that an individual's (institution's) orientation to the tying of aid and to the transfer of western models of organization and administration could add to an individual's (institution's) orientation towards a development paradigm, as possible indicators of ethnocentricity. The next section examines the actual measurement of these indicators for an aid co-operant.

MEASUREMENT OF CO-OPERANT ETHNOCENTRICITY

A summary of the underlying assumptions towards development/ underdevelopment as identified from the various modes as well as the concomitant attitudes towards foreign aid and organizational theory is presented in Table 6. The assumptions were separated by the end of the continuum between the polar development paradigms to which they would be closest. From the perspective of an aid co-operant, the liberation assumptions are the least ethnocentric, and the dominant paradigm assumptions the most ethnocentric. Therefore, the degree to which opinion statements representing the polar assumptions are supported by an aid co-operant could provide a measure of the ethnocentricity of co-operants with regards to their orientation towards development. In this regard, the assumptions which this writer considered to be the most salient were presented in question form, (see questionnaire in appendix). Although other assumptions from each paradigm could have been used, this writer concluded that those used in the questionnaire would provide a representative ethnocentricity measure.

Levinson's (1950:102-150) work on the construction and validation of E-scales (ethnocentricity scales) provided a model and justification for the development of a questionnaire instrument to measure ethnocentricity. A portion of Levinson's 34 item scale is presented in Figure 2. Further modifications reduced his scale to ten items, which he suggested (1950:141) could be used as a dependable measure of ethnocentrism. The instrument used in this study also contained ten items and incorporated Levinson's response reaction scale ranging from strong support to strong opposition. Rokeach (1960:73) used a similar response reaction scale

Table 6

Underlying Assumptions: Development

Indicators of Development	Dominant Paradigm	Liberation Paradigm
1. Economic	- primarily economic growth - a strong entrepreneurial class	- economic growth but equal income distribution
2. Sociological	- the west is what the developing nations want to become (Pattern Variables) - passive participation	- non-passive participation
3. Psychological	- high achievement motivation	- raising of human consciousness and prexis

Causes and Solutions	Dominant Paradigm	Liberation Paradigm
1. Index Mode	- deficiencies in developing nations - developed nation model should be copied to overcome deficiencies	- underdevelopment is primarily caused by the dependency relationship existing between developed and developing
2. Diffusion Mode	- resistance to diffusion of western models causes underdevelopment - diffusion of capital, skills technologies by aid programs is solution	- underdevelopment must be seen in proper historical context
3. Evolutionary Mode	- traditional is defined negatively - modernity positively - the historical example of western development should be followed	- revolution and income redistribution are important solutions.
Foreign Aid	- aid is a useful tool for development (variances in degree of tying proposed)	- the existing framework for the supplying of aid is not favourable to developing nations
Organizational Theory	- deficiencies in developing nations require transfer of western models (variances in degree of contingency requied)	- western models are not valid in the third world context

THE TOTAL ETHNOCENTRISM SCALE
Public Opinion Questionnaire E

The following statements refer to opinions regarding a number of social groups and issues, about which some people agree and others disagree. Please mark each statement in the left-hand margin according to your agreement or disagreement, as follows:

+1: slight support, agreement	−1: slight opposition, disagreement
+2: moderate support, "	−2: moderate opposition, "
+3: strong support, "	−3: strong opposition, "

____ 1. The many political parties tend to confuse national issues, add to the expense of elections, and raise unnecessary agitation. For this and other reasons, it would be best if all political parties except the two major ones were abolished.

____ 2. If there are enough Negroes who want to attend dances at a local dance hall featuring a colored band, a good way to arrange this would be to have one all-Negro night, and then the whites could dance in peace the rest of the time.

____ 3. Patriotism and loyalty are the first and most important requirements of a good citizen.

____ 4. Certain religious sects whose beliefs do not permit them to salute the flag should be forced to conform to such a patriotic action, or else be abolished.

____ 5. The Negroes would solve many of their social problems by not being so irresponsible, lazy, and ignorant.

____ 6. Any group or social movement which contains many foreigners should be watched with suspicion and, whenever possible, be investigated by the FBI.

____ 7. There will always be superior and inferior nations in the world and, in the interests of all concerned, it is best that the superior ones be in control of world affairs.

____ 8. Negro musicians are sometimes as good as white musicians at swing music and jazz, but it is a mistake to have mixed Negro-white bands.

____ 9. Although women are necessary now in the armed forces and in industry, they should be returned to their proper place in the home as soon as the war ends.

____10. Minor forms of military training, obedience, and discipline, such as drill, marching and simple commands, should be made a part of the elementary school educational program.

____11. It would be a mistake to have Negroes for foremen and leaders over whites.

____12. The main threat to basic American institutions during this century has come from the infiltration of foreign ideas, doctrines, and agitators.

____13. Present treatment of conscientious objectors, draft-evaders, and enemy aliens is too lenient and mollycoddling. If a person won't fight for his country, he deserves a lot worse than just a prison or a work camp.

____14. Negroes may have a part to play in white civilization, but it is best to keep them in their own districts and schools and to prevent too much intermixing with whites.

Figure 2

Levinson's Ethnocentrism Scale
(Partial Reproduction)

ranging from "agree very much" to "disagree very much." As with Levinson, Rokeach assigned scores of -3 to +3 for each item and both researchers used the total score as the sum of scores obtained on all items. For the instrument used in this study, a strong support response scored +6 or +1 depending on which paradigm the statement item was based. That is, for a statement item representing the dominant end of the paradigm continuum, a highly agree scored +6 and a highly disagree +1. A mean score of 6 (12 questions) represented the highest ethnocentric measure and a mean score of 1 the lowest ethnocentric measure.

IMPLICATIONS OF CO-OPERANT ETHNOCENTRICITY

This writer concluded that the orientation of an aid co-operant towards development administration, organizational theory in a developing context, foreign aid and theories of development and underdevelopment would have significant implications for the behaviour of the development project. Most important, as Hochschild (1978:4) pointed out, was the consideration of power and the concomitant consideration of control. As Thompson (1964:91) suggested, "Administrative practices and principles of the west have derived from a pre-occupation with control and therefore have little value in underdeveloped countries." In addition, Debloie (1976:9) proposed that the western model values efficiency and social control; the liberation model values social justice and the creation of a "new man." Therefore, the degree of ethnocentricity with regards to an orientation towards development paradigms could have implications for the leadership style practised by an expatriate manager of a development project. One aspect of this leadership style, as a mani-

festation of the co-operant's ethnocentricity, may be the position power assumed by the co-operant in the project's operation.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, the literature concerned with the indicators of co-operant ethnocentricity was reviewed. Ethnocentricity was conceptualized in terms of support for polar development paradigms. Theory and research were outlined in the following areas: development theories, causes and solutions to underdevelopment, ethnocentricity, and measurement of ethnocentricity. From a pool of items which represented polar approaches to development, ten items were selected to provide a measure of co-operant ethnocentricity.

In addition, based upon previous scales developed by Levinson (1950) and Rokeach (1960), a questionnaire to measure co-operant ethnocentricity was developed.

Chapter 4

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE: POSITION POWER

The third and final area of literature and research reviewed in this study was concerned with the identification of the following:

(1) co-operant position power as an appropriate project characteristic that may be a manifestation of co-operant ethnocentricity

(2) a definition and appropriate measure of co-operant position power.

It was demonstrated, in the deductive identification of effectiveness indicators of a development project, that a project must be considered from a wide range of perspectives. Similarly, the identification of co-operant position power as a salient development project characteristic that may relate to effectiveness required sifting through a broad range of literature sources. Due to the unmanageably large number of possible organizational characteristics it was not feasible to start from the general and work to the specific in the deductive process. Therefore, the literature relating specifically to the management of the development project was examined first to identify salient project characteristics that may relate to effectiveness.

THE DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

Theories of Project Planning, Implementation, Management

Selected writers in the area of project planning, implementation and management and the characteristics of project management they

identified are presented in Table 7. These writers have considered project characteristics other than those listed. However, what was included in the listing in Table 7 were those aspects of project management identified as having some implications for project behaviour. In addition, no qualitative considerations were presented in this list. For example, Deblois' (1976:38) recommendations with regards to control differ diametrically from Cook's (1971:35) consideration of control. However, what is evident is that a sampling of authors in the area of project management considered the questions of authority, control and discipline and concomitant aspects of leadership style as major determinants of project behaviour.

Development Administration

Deblois (1976:3) suggested that the consideration of development administration is dependent upon the "paradigmatic framework which guided the research and provided the acceptable setting within which to develop organizational models." He (1976:9) also suggested that ". . . the western model values efficiency and social control; the liberation model values social justice and the creation of a new man." Therefore, it should be recognized that most writings in the area of development administration are theoretically based upon western organizational models and their consideration of administrative styles reflects this base. For instance, Negandhi (1975:4) based his examination of management patterns in developing societies upon the environmental studies of Burns and Stalker (1961) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967). Burns and Stalker (1961) concluded that a "mechanistic" (highly centralized, bureaucratic) form of organization appeared to be most appropriate under relatively

Table 7

Selected Characteristics of Project Management

Author	Project Management Characteristics
Cook (1971)	1. Control 2. Authority 3. System analysis
Deblois (1976)	1. Authority 2. Leadership style 3. Decision making 4. Communication patterns 5. Control
Hirschman (1964)	1. Discipline and control 2. Creativity 3. Risk taking
Ripman (1959)	1. Authority 2. Centralization
Rondinelli (1977)	1. Authority 2. Leadership style 3. Planning

stable environmental conditions, while the "organic" form seemed best suited for change. The debate among development administrators has centered around the arguments for and against the applicability of mechanistic or organic management styles to the developing situation.

Milne (1970:57-65) examined the administrative models of Riggs (1964) and Thompson (1964). Milne (1970:57) suggested that in Riggs' model, superior officials do not delegate authority to subordinates. In addition, Milne (1970:58) suggested that subordinates in Latin America were reluctant to accept and exercise delegated powers, even if offered. However, he cautioned not to assume that the lack of delegation implied that there was effective centralization, only that there was the appearance of centralization. In fact, Milne (1970:58) proposed that close supervision (attempted tight centralization) would be doomed to fail as it counteracts the strong centrifugal forces of a traditional society.

Whereas Riggs (1964) recommended control, Thompson's (1964:93-94) model emphasized "innovative atmosphere, operational and shared planning goals, the combination of planning and action, diffusion of influence, and the toleration of interdependence." Milne (1970:61) identified Thompson's administrative conditions as implicitly recommending Burns' and Stalker's (1961) organic model of organization, but he also suggested that it would be difficult for organizations corresponding to the organic model to operate in developing countries.

In general, writers in the area of development administration identified the questions of centralization of authority, control, and power as salient to management in a developing situation. However, as with the literature on project management, there existed considerable disagreement as to the degree of centralization - decentralization most

suitable to the developing situation.

Systems Approach

In the consideration of effectiveness indicators for the development project, it was suggested that reasons for the polarized approaches to various aspects of the development project could be seen from a systems approach. That is, from the perspective of the donor nation, the development project can be considered a temporary system while from the perspective of the aid recipient nation it can be considered an initial system growth stage. As with the identification of effectiveness indicators, salient characteristics of project management were identified from the identifying characteristics of these two perspectives.

Temporary system. Of the 12 characteristics of the temporary system identified by Miles (1964:452), the following appeared to be management concerns: (i) task orientation, (ii) role newness or identity redefinition, (iii) non-bureaucratic (organic) norms and (iv) competency based authority. In this regard, Miles (1964:473) proposed that high levels of communication, openness, egalitarianism, and authenticity were representative of the non-bureaucratic norms. In addition, several writers examined specific aspects of temporary system management in a research situation.

Goodman and Goodman (1976:494-501) examined the effects of role clarity upon the temporary system behaviour. They (1976:498) suggested that in the specific case of a theatre production, a "blurred role" strategy would do the following:

(1) lead to greater task effectiveness

(2) utilize human resources more fully

(3) result in greater professional growth.

That is, a management style reflecting a shared versus hierarchical task structure would be more effective in the temporary system situation.

Keith (1978:195-203) suggested that role ambiguity and "newly created roles of short duration" were necessary attributes of the temporary system. However, he also (1978:197) pointed out that the role ambiguity would increase strain and would be inversely related to productivity.

As Bennis (1965:31) suggested, the temporary system has strong resemblance to the organic model of organization. Therefore, as with the writers on development project management and development administration, the managerial concerns of temporary systems centre around the questions of centralization, authority, and role hierarchies, as they relate to temporary system effectiveness.

Initial growth stage. Although the literature related to the management of initial system growth stages was sparce, Gilliland and Gilliland (1978:6) suggested that this system stage requires a special type of manager. In addition, Keith (1978:201) observed that ". . . temporary systems. . . are characterized by many of the conditions of beginning organizations." Therefore, this writer concluded that the temporary system considerations of centralization, authority and role hierarchy were applicable to the initial growth stage as well.

Constraints Upon Project Management Characteristics

Steers (1977:7) recognized that the following aspects of management practice could be related to organizational effectiveness:

(1) strategic goal setting

(2) resource acquisition and utilization

(3) creating a performance environment

(4) communicative processes, leadership and decision making

(5) organizational adaptation and innovation

From the literature related to project management, development administration and the systems approach to the development project, the fourth area, aspects of communication processes, leadership and decision making were identified as a priority concern for development project management. In particular, the considerations of Burns' and Stalker's (1960) mechanistic and organic management styles were identified as commonly used comparison bases. However, for the purposes of this study any specific characteristics of project management styles considered the following constraints.

(1) Those characteristics that can be perceived (and therefore measured) by the co-operant who has worked as project team leader for a development project.

(2) Those characteristics that are manipulable by project participants.

(3) Those characteristics that could be involved in a relationship with co-operants orientation towards development.

The project management characteristics of centralization, authority, and bureaucratization satisfied the requirements of the first two constraints listed above. That is, these characteristics could be measured and perceived by the co-operant and they are manipulable by the project participants. The third constraint--the involvement of these characteristics in a causal relationship with the co-operant orientation towards development--required further examination.

Hochschild (1978:1-5) provided an indication of not only the

possible link between orientation to development and management behaviour but suggested a more global indicator than a consideration of the mechanistic/organic identifiers. Hochschild (1978:3), in discussing the relational dimensions of underdevelopment, suggested that the most manifest condition of an underdeveloped nation is its powerlessness. That is, the relationship between the developed and developing world has been such that the "dominant" (western) paradigm of development has caused the developing world to be ". . . powerless. . . in determining the outcome to their own responses to pressing social forces." Therefore, it could be suggested that where the dominant approach to development has induced third world powerlessness, the liberation approach would induce third world power to determine their own responses. With similar logic, a question may be asked of the developing project: Will the development paradigm orientation of the co-operant influence to some degree either the powerlessness of the recipient nation project participants or the position power the co-operant assumes in the project's operation?

The consideration of power seemed appropriate in view of the previously identified concerns for the variables of authority, centralization, decision making and communication. A measure of co-operant power could provide an inclusive indication of mechanistic or organic management style. Therefore, with co-operant position power identified as an appropriate development project characteristic for the purposes of this study, it was necessary to return to the broader areas of organizational and social theory for an elaboration and measurement of the power concept.

POWER

To conceptualize power it was necessary to consider power in relation to the terms authority and influence. Some writers (Dahl, 1975:25) proposed that power and influence could be used interchangeably. Others (Isherwood, 1973:294) seemed to equate power with authority. However, distinctions between these three related terms can be made. A sampling of definitions of power, authority and influence is presented in Table 8. From these definitions, it appeared that power is a broader term and that influence and authority are generally considered as two forms of power (Pichler, 1974:401). That is, where power is the ability to affect the behaviour of others, authority is power legitimized by some social structure and influence is power based upon personal resources of the power figure. In terms of power, of particular relevance to this study was the consideration of power in terms of dependency (Emerson, 1962:31-41; Thibaut and Kelly, 1959:100-125). In view of the development paradigms and their concern for dependency relationships, evidence for a conceptualization of power in terms of dependency supported the consideration of practiced power as a possible operationalization of a development paradigm.

Therefore, if power (as separate from authority and influence) could be identified as appropriate for the purposes of this study, Pichler's (1974:401) and Blau's (1964:200) definitions of social power could be modified to identify co-operant power as follows:

> the co-operant's ability (1) to decide the fate of, or to determine factors controlling the conditions of other project team members, (2) to affect the thoughts, emotions or actions of other project team members.

However, to conceptualize the operationalization of power it was

Table 8

Definitions: Power, Influence, Authority

Author	Power	Influence	Authority
Blau (1964:200)	Power is the ability of one or more individuals to determine the behaviour of others by various means including the threat of sanctions against the individual or group		
Claus and Bailey (1977)	Power is the ability and willingness to affect the behaviour of others (17)	Influence is the result of the proper use of power based upon reward systems that are controlled by the person who has the power (21)	Authority is an official or legitimized right to use a given amount or type of power (21)
Dornbush and Scott (1975:37)			Authority is legitimate power
Dahl (Dornbush and Scott, 1975: 31)	A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do		
Hicks (Clause and Bailey, 1977:17)			Authority is the right to take actions based upon a formal or personal power

Table 8

(Continued)

Author	Power	Influence	Authority
Isherwood (1973:290)			The exercise of control that rests on the willing compliance of subordinates with the directives of their supervisors
Parsons (Jacobsen, 1972:9)		Influence is the result of the use of power	
Pichler (1974)	Individual or collective ability to affect the thoughts, emotions or actions of one or more other persons (401)	Behaviour induced through a process that involved the power figure's resources rather than the prerequisite of office (401)	A power term exercised only in the context of a social structure that has been consciously created. . . (417)
Thibaut and Kelly (Dornbush and Scott, 1975: 33)	The power of A over B is equal to and based upon the dependence of B upon A		
Weber (Dornbush and Scott, 1975: 31)	Power is the probability that one action within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance		

necessary to consider the bases of the power as defined above. French and Raven (1959:155) defined the bases as ". . . the relationship between a power figure and a recipient which is the source of that power." Though French and Raven (1959:155) recognized that there existed many possible bases of power, they suggested that the following five were the most common and important:

(1) Reward power--based upon a power figure's ability to mediate rewards

(2) Coercive power--based upon a power figure's ability to mediate punishments

(3) Legitimate power--based upon a power figure's right to prescribe behaviour

(4) Referent power--based upon a power figure providing a desirable example

(5) Expert power--based upon a power figure's special knowledge or expertise.

An examination of research in the area of leadership styles and/or power identified several studies where measures were developed based upon a consideration of French and Raven's (1959) power bases.

Measurement of Power

Isherwood (1973:294) combined the notions of authority developed by Weber (1947), Barnard (1938), Simon (1970), Blau and Scott (1962), and Peabody (1962) along with French and Raven's (1959) concept of social power to develop what he called the PSAI (Principal, Staff Authority Inventory). He proposed (1973:295) that the combined measures of traditional authority, legal authority, charismatic authority, authority of expertise, normative authority and human relations skills could provide an overall measure of a principal's total authority over his teaching staff. Isherwood's (1973:296) definitions of the types of authority

listed above closely proximated French and Raven's (1959:156-161) definitions of their power bases. The measurement technique Isherwood (1973:298) developed was based upon subordinates' (teachers) responses to questions like: "I do the things my principal suggests or wants me to do because:" The choices of response represented an operationalization of each authority type.

Holzbach (1974) developed a similar instrument which he called the Attribution Power Index, based specifically upon French and Raven's (1959) five bases of social power. As with Isherwood's (1973) instrument, Holzbach's instrument was intended to be given to subordinates to obtain their perception of the leader's power. In addition, Holzbach's (1974) instrument also presented the subordinate with a situation to which he matched a leader behaviour that represented a particular social power base.

Both of the above instruments were rejected for the purposes of this study as they were developed to obtain leader power measures based upon follower perceptions. Isherwood's (1973) and Holzbach's (1974) instruments did not appear suitable for modification to obtain a leader's perception of his own power--a necessary requirement of any instrument to be used in this study.

Fiedler (1967) is recognized as a major contributor to the literature in the area of leadership style and leadership effectiveness. Fiedler (1967:72) placed his examination of leadership styles and effectiveness in the context of earlier leadership studies such as those done by Lewin and Lippett (1938) and McGrath (1961). For example, McGrath (Fiedler, 1967:12) suggested that there were two clusters of leadership

styles: (1) aristocratic, authoritarian, task-orientated, initiating and (2) democratic, egalitarian, permissive, group orientated. Fiedler (1967:12) recognized the contingency of these leadership behaviour and attitudes since ". . . all of these methods, and any combination of them have worked in some instances and not in others." Within the contingency consideration of leadership effectiveness and the assumption of an interacting group, Fiedler (1967:22) identified three factors of major importance to effectiveness:

(1) the leader's position power

(2) the structure of the task

(3) the interpersonal relationship between leader and members

The leader's position power was the factor of concern for the purposes of this study.

Fiedler (1967:22) defined position power as ". . . the degree to which the position itself enables the leader to get his group members to comply with and accept his direction." He (1967:24) proposed an 18-item checklist which would provide an operational and relative measure of the leader's position power. This checklist is reproduced in Figure 3. For the purposes of this study, Fiedler's (1967) leader position power measure was modified to become a measure of co-operant power in a developing project situation (as defined earlier).

Fiedler's (1967) questionnaire provided a measure of the ". . . potential power which the organization provides for the leader's use" (Fiedler, 1967:23). Two other researchers (Hunt, 1967; Lavery, 1973) established precedents for the successful use of Fiedler's position power instrument in modified form. These researchers reduced Fiedler's orig-

Measure of Position Power *

1. Compliments from the leader are appreciated more than compliments from other group members.
2. Compliments are highly valued, criticisms are considered damaging.
3. Leader can recommend punishments and rewards.
4. Leader can punish or reward members on his own accord.
5. Leader can effect (or can recommend) promotion or demotion.
6. Leader chairs or coordinates group but may or may not have other advantages, i.e., is appointed or acknowledged chairman or leader.
7. Leader's opinion is accorded considerable respect and attention.
8. Leader's special knowledge or information (and members' lack of it) permits leader to decide how task is to be done or how group is to proceed.
9. Leader cues members or instructs them on what to do.
10. Leader tells or directs members what to do or what to say.
11. Leader is expected to motivate group.
12. Leader is expected to suggest and evaluate the members' work.
13. Leader has superior or special knowledge about the job, or has special instructions but requires members to do job.
14. Leader can supervise each member's job and evaluate it or correct it.
15. Leader knows his own as well as members' job and could finish the work himself if necessary, e.g., writing a report for which all information is available.
16. Leader enjoys special or official rank and status in real life which sets him apart from or above group members, e.g., military rank or elected office in a company or organization. (+5 points)
17. Leader is given special or official rank by experimenter to simulate for role-playing purposes, e.g., "You are a general" or "the manager." This simulated rank must be clearly superior to members' rank and must not be just that of "chairman" or "group leader" of the group during its work period. (+3 points)
18. Leader's position is dependent on members; members can replace or depose leader. (−5 points)

* The dimension of leader position power is defined by the above checklist in which all "true" items are given 1 point, except for items 16, 17, and 18, which are weighted +5, +3, and −5 points respectively.

Figure 3

Fiedler's Leader Position Power Instrument

inal 18 items to 13 items (Hunt) and 11 items (Lavery) to suit the particular context in which they planned to use the instrument. For the purposes of this study, the following modifications were made to his questionnaire:

(1) The wording of the items were changed to measure not just the latent or potential power but the power actually exercised in the position as perceived by a co-operant.

(2) Those measures which afforded the co-operant no option to practice or not to practice were dropped from the instrument.

(3) Two further items were added related to (i) the degree to which the co-operant exceeded the range of expert power and (ii) the degree to which the co-operant's leader position was dependent upon host national project members.

(4) Finally, it was felt that a yes/no, true/false response did not provide adequate response latitude and that the frequency of exercising a power base would be worthy of consideration. Therefore, rather than a true/false response, the co-operant was asked to respond on a four-point frequency scale ranging from "never" to "regularly."

These modifications provided a 12-item questionnaire to measure co-operant power, where a mean score of 1 (all "never" responses) and a mean score of 4 (all "regularly" responses) would represent respectively the lowest and highest power measures (the instrument is included in Appendix A). Furthermore, the remaining modified questions were examined in the context of French and Raven's (1958) five bases of social power to ensure that all "bases" were covered by the questionnaire items. To do this, the five bases of power were defined in the context of this

study as follows:

(1) Reward power--degree to which the co-operant influenced behaviour by reward

(2) Coercive power--degree to which the co-operant influenced behaviour by coercion or punishment

(3) Legitimate power--degree to which the co-operant influenced behaviour by a perceived right to prescribe behaviour

(4) Referent power--degree to which co-operant influenced behaviour by being perceived as an example to model

(5) Expert power--degree to which co-operant influenced behaviour by holding special knowledge or skills

An examination of the questionnaire showed that three items addressed reward and coercion power, three addressed legitimate power, two addressed referent power, and two items addressed expert power. Therefore, the content of the questionnaire included all facets of French and Raven's bases for social power.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, the literature related to co-operant position power was reviewed. In addition to an overview of previously reviewed literature in the areas of development administration, project management, temporary systems and development paradigms, the literature relating to power, authority and influence was reviewed and a definition of co-operant power was provided.

French and Raven's (1959) five bases of social power were selected as a starting point for the development of indicators of co-operant power. Fiedler's (1967) Leader Position Power instrument was significantly modified to provide a questionnaire instrument suitable for the purposes of this study.

Chapter 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the research design and methodology used in the study are presented. The research design section includes a presentation of the conceptual framework and research questions used to guide the research. In addition, the respondents used in the study are described and the instrumentation used is examined. Finally, the research methodology is outlined, including a description of the data collection and treatment methods.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between selected indicators of development project effectiveness, selected characteristics of the development project and selected contextual variables in order to suggest how manipulation of project and contextual characteristics may influence development project effectiveness.

Conceptual Framework

No previous research was found to suggest that there were relationships between the variables examined in this study. However, the line of reasoning that led to the formulation of this study was that the project leader's orientation to development affected to some degree both his perception of the effectiveness of a development project and the position power assumed in relation to host national project members.

Although logic suggested that relationships existed, the literature support was mainly speculative. For instance, Gue and Smith (1977:5) suggested that lowering the ethnocentrism of educational administrators on foreign assignment may result in an increase in the productive work of educational advisors overseas. Cochran (1975:695) suggested that an individual's attitude towards the manner in which foreign aid should be supplied could be one indication of their attitude towards hierarchical control. However, for this study, the common thread throughout the three variables was the conceptualization of these variables in terms of the underlying assumptions of the divergent approaches to development. For this reason, the project leader's orientation towards development was identified as an independent variable and the position power and effectiveness variables were conceptualized as operationalizations of the project leader's orientation towards development. Position power was considered as an intervening variable and effectiveness as a dependent variable. In addition, selected contextual variables were identified as independent variables in relation to all three variables. The schematic presented as Figure 4 (presented earlier as Figure 1) depicts the possible relationships and interrelationships between and among all variables.

The problem statement of the study suggested nine sub-problems. Sub-problems 1, 2, and 3 suggested the task of describing the respondents with regards to each of the research variables. Sub-problems 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 suggested the task of describing and exploring the relationships between the research variables as these relationships were identified in Figure 4. Rather than state testable hypothesis with

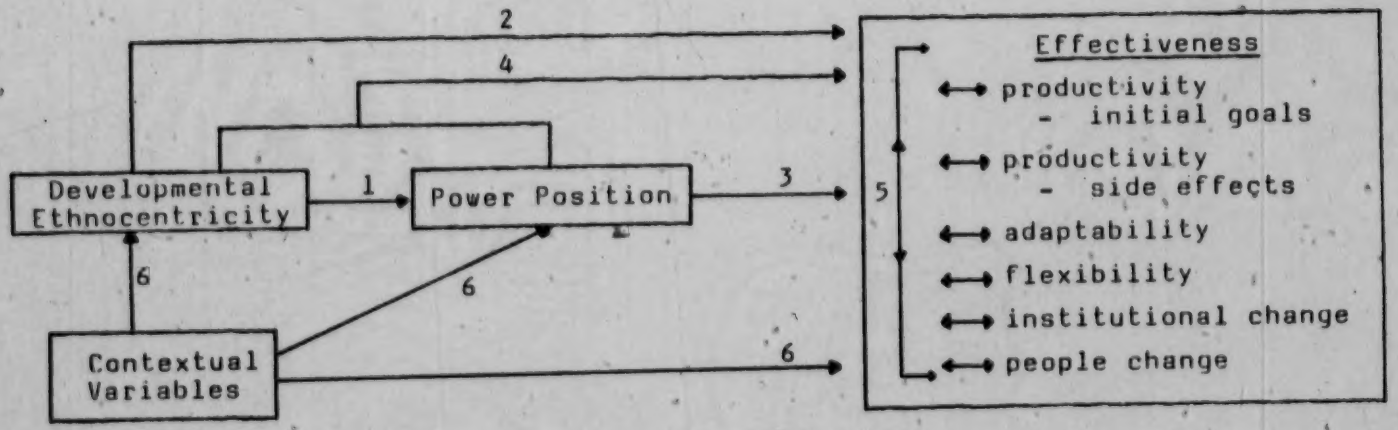

Figure 4

Conceptual Framework of Possible Relationships Between and Among Co-Operant Ethnocentricity, Co-Operant Position Power, Variables of Project Effectiveness and Contextual Variables

regards to these nine sub-problem statements, it was decided that these nine sub-problem statements were to be used as the study research questions. Therefore, the following were the nine research questions used in this study.

Description of Respondents: Research Variables

Research question #1. Were project leaders developmentally ethnocentric or developmentally unethnocentric?

Research question #2. What degree of position power did project leaders exercise in relations with host nationals?

Research question #3. How did project leaders perceive the effectiveness of their development project?

Description of Relationships Between Research Variables

Hochschild (1978:5) suggested that the dominant development paradigm induced powerlessness in the third world peoples. Relationship #1 in Figure 4 suggested the following research question:

Research question #4. What was the relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and project leader position power on the development project?

In the deduction of the development project effectiveness indicators, it was suggested that consideration must be given to perspective in the identification of development project effectiveness indicators. Relationship #2 in Figure 4 suggested the following research question:

Research question #5. What was the relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

It has been suggested in the consideration of management and leadership styles for the development project that the concern for various indicators of effectiveness may be contingent upon the style practiced. Relationship #3 in Figure 4 suggested the following research question:

Research question #6. What was the relationship between project leader position power on the development project and the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

There was no conclusive theoretical or research evidence that developmental ethnocentricity and position power are related or that together or separately they are related to any of the effectiveness variables. Relationship #4 in Figure 4 suggested the following research question:

Research question #7. What was the relationship between the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power and the selected indicators of project effectiveness?

In the consideration of effectiveness indicators, it was suggested that the development project (and the project leader) serves two masters--the donor nation and the recipient nation--and from the perspective of each "master," different indicators of effectiveness are given different priority. Relationship #5 in Figure 4 suggested the following research question:

Research question #8. What was the relationship between the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

Some researchers (Levinson, 1950) suggested that certain contextual variables (e.g. age, sex, years of schooling) have an effect upon

measures of ethnocentrism. Relationship #6 in Figure 4 suggested the following research question:

Research question #9. What was the relationship between selected contextual variables and developmental ethnocentricity, position power and the development project effectiveness?

Respondents

A C.I.D.A. supplied computer printout of all co-operants who went overseas between January 1976 and June 1979 was used to identify the group of C.I.D.A. co-operants to whom the questionnaire were sent. This printout indicated the co-operant's job title/speciality, location of project, and the date the co-operant returned to Canada. From this listing of approximately 1,000 names, those individuals most likely to have been project team leaders were selected according to the following criteria:

(i) all co-operants whose speciality/job title was described as one of the following: (a) co-ordinator (b) project management (c) policy/ planning (d) administration (e) evaluation (f) curriculum development.

(ii) all co-operants who began working on a project at least six months prior to the arrival of other C.I.D.A. co-operants assigned to the same project.

From the above procedure, 220 names were identified and sent to C.I.D.A. in Ottawa to obtain addresses. C.I.D.A. was able to supply the addresses for only 115 of these names. However, at the same time, C.I.D.A. supplied a listing of 270 addresses used in a previous C.I.D.A. study) of C.I.D.A. co-operants who had returned from overseas assignment between 1976 and 1978. Using this list of 270 names and addresses, and

referring again to the original computer printout supplied by C.I.D.A., another 120 co-operants were identified who might possibly have been project leaders. Since there was no feasible way to identify C.I.D.A. co-operants who had been project leaders, questionnaires were sent to this selected group of 235 C.I.D.A. co-operants who had returned from overseas assignments between January 1976 and April 1979. Those who responded to the questionnaire indicating that they (i) had been overseas for at least one year, (ii) had host nationals working full time on their project and (iii) were considered either project co-leader or leader, were used in this study. A total of 54 C.I.D.A. co-operants were identified by this procedure for inclusion in this study.

Therefore, the desired respondent group was selected from a larger group of all C.I.D.A. co-operants (i) who had returned to Canada between 1976 and April 1979, (ii) who by job description/speciality or time of arrival on their projects may have been project co-leaders or leaders and (iii) for whom addresses were available.

INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

For the purposes of this study, instruments were required to measure the respondent's position power, ethnocentricity and his perception of project effectiveness. No available instrumentation could be found that was suitable without modification to measure any one of the three variables. However, in each case, instruments were identified that with varying degrees of modification could be used to measure the variables selected for this study.

Project Effectiveness Instrument

Mott (1972) developed a questionnaire for measuring perceptions of organizational effectiveness that could be modified to suit the purposes of this study. Mott's (1972) instrument measured adaptability, flexibility and productivity. After extensive field testing, Mott (1972:199) concluded that his instrument was a "valid and inexpensive measure" of organizational effectiveness. In addition, reliability of the instrument was demonstrated by a test-retest situation in which a reliability co-efficient of .68 was obtained (Mott, 1972:199). Furthermore, Hassen (1976:73) used a modified form of Mott's questionnaire and demonstrated that the instrument represented a high degree of construct validity.

To make the instrument appropriate for use in this study the following changes were made: (i) Mott's productivity questions were repeated for the consideration of side effects. (ii) Questions measuring the amount and permanence of institutional and people change were added. (iii) Some question wordings were changed to be more applicable to the specific case of the development project.

Developmental Ethnocentricity Instrument

Levinson's (1950) work on the construction and validation of E-scales (ethnocentricity scales) provided a model for the development of a questionnaire to measure developmental ethnocentricity. Although the content of his questionnaire was inappropriate, the format Levinson (1950:102-150) used was considered suitable for this study. In a similar manner to the procedure Levinson (1950) used to develop his scale, a pool

of items representing divergent approaches to development was culled down to ten statements, five representing each of the polar development paradigms. A response range similar to Levinson's (1950:110) and Rokeach's (1960:73) six point scales was developed. After extensive psychometric analysis, Levinson (1950:141) suggested that a brief ten item E-scale could be used as a dependable measure of ethnocentrism. However, Levinson (1950:145) did point out that although the total measure provided by such an instrument was reliable, there was only an "average" .60 correlation between single items and the total E scale. As Levinson (1950:145) suggested, "On an item-by-item basis, most people are not entirely consistent in their agreement or disagreement with ethnocentric ideas." In general, given the high degree of similarity between Levinson's (1950) instrument and the one developed for the purposes of this study, it was expected that the developmental ethnocentricity instrument would prove a valid and reliable measure.

Position Power Instrument

Fiedler's (1967:23) questionnaire provided a measure of the ". . . potential power which the organization provides for the leader's use." Two other researchers (Hunt, 1967; Lavery, 1973) established precedents for the successful use of Fiedler's position power instrument in modified form. These researchers reduced Fiedler's original 18 items to 13 items (Hunt) and 11 items (Lavery) to suit the particular context in which they planned to use the instrument. Both Hunt (1967) and Lavery (1973) concluded that their modified forms of the Fiedler instrument were effective measures of leader position power. For the purposes of this study, seven of Fiedler's items were dropped, two new ones added

and the wording of statements changed so as to measure the project leader's perception of the power he exercised. In addition, Fiedler's true/false response scale was replaced with a four-point frequency scale ranging from "never" to "regularly."

INSTRUMENTATION: VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

The questionnaire was examined before application in the actual study for content validity, predictive validity and usability. Due to the unavailability of a pilot sample that approximated the respondents in this study, no tests were used to examine the reliability of the instrument used. After the application of the questionnaire in the actual study, and before investigating the variable relationships, Pearson product moment correlations were derived to examine each of the three parts of the questionnaire. In addition, the effectiveness part of the instrument was examined using the technique of factor analysis. Finally, an intercorrelation matrix was constructed for selected demographic variables and eight research variables to examine the relationships between them.

Pre-Application Examination of Instrument

Content validity. The questionnaire was presented to seven individuals in the Edmonton area who had worked overseas on a foreign aid sponsored development project. Each was told what the questionnaire items were intended to measure and then were asked for their judgment as to whether the items measured what it was they were intended to measure.

Using this technique, several questions were deemed to be worded such that the meaning the respondent deduced wasn't what the researcher had in mind. These questions were modified so that there was a closer match between the meanings assigned by the researcher and by the respondent. In addition, two statements were added to the ethnocentricity part of the questionnaire when it was observed that the statements with regards to aid and transfer of administrative practices appeared more sensitive in measuring the orientation towards development.

Construct validity. The ethnocentricity instrument was presented to a number of individuals, each of whom were known personally and therefore their orientation towards one of the divergent development paradigms could be hypothesized. The ethnocentrism scores approximated the hypothesized result, therefore the instrument was considered to have had some predictive validity.

The unavailability of test subjects that both approximated the respondent group to be used in this study and for whom this researcher could hypothesize their response measures discounted the examination of the remainder of the instrument for predictive validity by this method.

Usability. The questionnaire was examined by individuals familiar with the design of instruments to evaluate and comment upon such things as the ease with which the tests could be administered, scored and the test results interpreted. In addition, respondents in the content validity application of the questionnaire were observed to determine the length of time taken to complete the questionnaire and were asked for any comments with regards to the administration of the questionnaire from a respondent's point of view.

All respondents took between 10 and 15 minutes to complete the

questionnaire, and all indicated that answering the questionnaire was a "painless" operation. Several respondents indicated that they actually enjoyed the opportunity to express their perceptions with regards to the project they had worked on and their feelings about development.

A copy of the questionnaire used in the study is contained in Appendix A.

Post-Application Examination of Instrument

A secondary purpose of this study was to examine the instrumentation used in this study. Therefore, the instrumentation was examined by methods that provided information relevant to the use of the instrument. In this regard, Pearson correlations between the research variables and the questionnaire items comprising these variables were examined. A factor analysis technique was used to examine the appropriateness of a six variable consideration in the effectiveness instrument. Response frequencies and distributions for the developmental ethnocentricity and position power instruments were examined to determine appropriate response groups for subsequent analysis. In addition, a correlation matrix between all research variables and the contextual variables was constructed for the purpose of examining the relationships between the contextual and research variables.

Effectiveness. The six effectiveness variables and corresponding questionnaire items from part II are presented in Table 9. The Pearson correlations between each of productivity-initial goals and adaptability and the items they are comprised of is presented in Table 10. Highly significant correlations were observed between the scores on

Table 9

Questionnaire Items Comprising Effectiveness Variables

Effectiveness Variable	Questionnaire Items(s)[1] Part II Comprising Effectiveness Variable
Productivity-Initial Goals	1, 2, 3[2]
Quantity of Side Effects	4
Adaptability	7, 8, 9, 10[2]
Flexibility	11
Amount of Institutional Change	12
Amount of People Change	13

[1]See Appendix A for questionnaire items.
[2]Score reported as mean of combined items.

Table 10

Pearson Correlations between Productivity-Initial Goals, Adaptability and the Items Comprising Them

Effectiveness Variable	Item (Part II)	Correlation of Item with Effectiveness Variable	Significance Level
Productivity-Initial Goals (N = 53)[1]	1	.83	.001
	2	.84	.001
	3	.86	.001
Adaptability (N = 53)	7	.62	.001
	8	.29	.018
	9	.72	.001
	10	.77	.001

[1]Respondents excluded who did not answer all items.

these two variables and the scores on the items that comprised them in every case except the correlation between adaptability and item 8. Item 8 was concerned with the adaptability of the project to the unique environment of the developing situation. An examination of the responses to this item indicated that 83.4% or 45 of the project leaders felt that either "a lot" or "very much" consideration was given to the uniqueness of the environment. This suggested that although item 8 may indeed measure a form of adaptability, it was not very sensitive to variations in perceptions of adaptability with regards to the particular group of respondents used in this study.

A factor analysis technique was applied to the effectiveness instrument (part II in the questionnaire) and the results of both a six- and a four-factor solution are presented in Appendix B. Although a six-factor solution was expected due to the development of six effectiveness variables, a four-factor solution was suggested by the eigenvalues. The results of a four-factor solution, indicating for the research variables and the overall effectiveness item those loadings of .4000 or greater, are presented in Table 11.

The reduction from a six-factor solution to a four-factor solution appeared primarily due to the loadings of the institutional and people change variables. Institutional change loaded with productivity of initial goals and people change with flexibility. This was not entirely unexpected due to the fact that institutional change and productivity were previously identified as effectiveness concerns from a dominant perspective while people change and flexibility were identified as effectiveness concerns from a liberation perspective. In addition, in Factor 3 of the four-factor solution, two of the adaptability items

Table 11

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for the Research Variables in the Effectiveness Instrument - Four Factor Solution[1]

N = 47[2]

Research Variable	Questionnaire Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Productivity-Initial Goals	1	.62020			
	2	.41031		(.47442)[3]	
	3	.61077			
Quantity of Side Effects	4		.75403		
Adaptability	7				.54373
	8			(.46936)[3]	-.43353
	9				.43060
	10			(.42425)[3]	.73371
Flexibility	11			.64725	
Institutional Change	12	.42500			
People Change	13			.52647	
Overall Effectiveness	15	.83742			

[1]Only loadings of |.4| or greater are presented; see Appendix B for complete matrix.
[2]Respondents excluded who did not answer all items.
[3]Brackets indicate a second loading apart from the loading on the related effectiveness variable.

load with the flexibility-people change factor. Again, these double loadings were not entirely unexpected given the close theoretical relationship between adaptability and flexibility. However, no explanation could be given for the double loading of item 2 (quality of the production with regards to initial goals) of the productivity variable with both factor one and factor three. Also worth noting was the fact that item 15,

originally considered as a possible indicator of perceptions of the overall effectiveness of a project, loaded only with productivity of initial goals and institutional change. This suggested that project leaders tended to equate effectiveness only with the production of initial goals and the inducement of institutional change.

The loadings of .4000 or greater for the research variables on a forced six-factor solution are presented in Table 12. There was no ambiguity with regards to item 2 in the productivity variable. However, item 8 in the adaptability variable did not load on any factor, suggesting that in future use of this instrument, the validity of this item should be questioned. In addition, the change variables now showed different loadings, with institutional change now loading by itself, and people change loading with both the productivity and side effects variables. Therefore, although it appeared from a four-factor solution that the institutional and people change variables could possibly have been included in the productivity-initial goals and flexibility variables respectively, the six-factor solution did not entirely support this conclusion.

From the results of the factor analysis using both four-and six-factor solutions, some confusion was observed, especially with regards to the adaptability and change variables. However, it was decided that enough evidence of factorial purity was demonstrated to warrant maintaining the six effectiveness variables as previously identified.

Developmental ethnocentricity. Pearson correlations between the developmental ethnocentricity variable and the 12 items comprising this variable are presented in Table 13. It was observed that significant correlations existed in all cases, suggesting a reasonable degree of

Table 12

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix Effectiveness Instrument: Six Factor Solution[1]

N = 47[2]

Research Variable	Questionnaire Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Productivity-Initial Goals	1	.5945					
	2	.6169					
	3	.6882					
Quantity of Side Effects	4		.8551				
Adaptability	7			.7017			
	8	--	--	--	--	--	--
	9				.8976		
	10			.6817			
Flexibility	11					.8090	
Institutional Change	12						.7043
People Change	13	.5350	.4390				
Overall Effectiveness	15	.7414					

[1]Only loading of |.4| value or greater are presented; see Appendix B for complete matrix.
[2]Respondents excluded who did not answer all items.

Table 13

Pearson Correlations between Ethnocentricity Score and Individual Test Item Scores, Part III

N = 54

Test[1] Item: Part III	Correlation with Ethnocentricity Score	Significance Level
1	.30	.014
2	.49	.001
3	.53	.001
4	.53	.001
5	.47	.001
6	.24	.038
7	.50	.001
8	.55	.001
9	.60	.001
10	.43	.001
11	.39	.002
12	.51	.001

[1]See Appendix A for questionnaire items, Part III, Developmental Ethnocentrism.

construct validity for this instrument. However, items 1 and 6 showed substantially lower correlations than did the other items. No explanation was obvious for the low correlations between item 6 and the ethnocentricity variable other than the fact that this item may simply not have been as suitable an indicator of developmental ethnocentrism as the other items. However, with regards to item 1, an examination of the distribution of the responses, as presented in Table 14, showed that 45 out of 54 (83.4%) of the respondents supported this statement. Therefore, it was concluded that although this item was an indicator of

Table 14

Distribution of Responses for Item 1, Ethnocentricity Instrument

N = 54

Response Choice	N	Percent of Total Respondents
Strong Support	17	31.5
Moderate Support	21	38.9
Slight Support	7	13.0
Slight Opposition	6	11.1
Moderate Opposition	1	1.9
Strong Opposition	2	3.6
Total	54	100.0

developmental ethnocentricity, it was not very sensitive with regards to the identification of developmental ethnocentrism for the respondents used in this study.

With regards to the sensitivity of the instrument used in this study to indicate the developmental ethnocentricity of project team leaders, the nature of the six-point scale comprising three degrees of support statements and three degrees of opposition statements suggested the following response groupings. A score (reported as a mean) less than or equal to 3 would indicate support for developmentally unethnocentric statements and a score of greater than 4 would indicate support for developmentally ethnocentric statements. It was felt that those respondents who scored between 3 and 4 were not clearly supportive of

one or the other of the liberation or dominant perspectives of development. Using this method of response groupings, the breakdown of project leaders with regards to their scores on the ethnocentrism variable are presented in Table 15. More detailed presentations of the distribution of the response are given in Table 27, Chapter 6 and in Appendix C.

Table 15

Distribution of Project Leaders by Developmental Ethnocentrism Score

N = 54

Score Reported as a Mean[1]	N	Percent of Total Respondents
$3 \geq \bar{x} \geq 1$ (developmentally unethnocentric)	9	16.7
$4 > \bar{x} > 3$	26	48.1
$6 \geq \bar{x} \geq 4$ (developmentally ethnocentric)	19	35.2
Total	54	100.0

[1]Possible mean score range for ethnocentricity variable is from $\bar{x} = 1$ to $\bar{x} = 6$.

Although it was hoped that the instrument would have proven somewhat more sensitive to ethnocentricity differences, the instrument used in this study provided a reasonably sensitive measure of the developmental ethnocentricity of project leaders.

Position power. Pearson correlations between the position power variable and the items comprising the variable are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Pearson Correlations between Position Power Variable Score and Individual Item Scores

N = 54

Questionnaire Item[1] Part IV	Correlation Between Position Power Score	Significance Level
1	.52	.001
2	.45	.001
3	.64	.001
4	.40	.001
5	.54	.001
6	.47	.001
7	.73	.001
8	.70	.001
9	.44	.001
10	.22	.058
11	.62	.001
12	.24	.038

[1]See Appendix for questionnaire items, Part IV, Position Power.

Correlations significant at the .001 level were observed with all but two items, one of which (item 10) did not correlate significantly at the .05 level. An examination of the responses to item 10 showed that half the respondents selected either "never" or "rarely" and half selected either "occasionally" or "regularly" in response to this item. This suggested that although this item was sensitive to some variable with regards to the project leader's position, it was not significantly related to the project leader's position power. Although in future application of this instrument, the inclusion of this item may be re-examined, it was not dropped from subsequent analysis in this study.

With regards to the suitability of the position power instrument as a sensitive measure of the power exercised by project leaders in relations with host nationals, grouped distribution of responses over the four-point scale is presented in Table 17. More detailed presentations of the distribution of the responses are given in Table 28, Chapter 6 and in Appendix C.

Table 17

Distribution of Responses to Position Power Variable
Over the Full Four Point Response Range
N = 54

Score Reported As A Mean[1]	N	Percent of Total Respondents
$2 \geq \bar{x} \geq 1$	6	11.2
$3 > \bar{x} > 2$	30	55.6
$4 \geq \bar{x} \geq 3$	19	35.2
Total	54	100.0

[1]Possible mean score range for position power variable is from $\bar{x} = 1$ to $\bar{x} = 4$.

It can be observed from Table 17 that over the four-point response range this instrument was not very sensitive with regards to the power position variable. However, the distribution of the responses by grouping the respondents by approximate thirds within the actual response range is presented in Table 18.

Table 18

Distribution of Scores to Position Power Variable by Approximate[2] Thirds within the Actual Response Range[1]

N = 54

Third Grouping	N[2]	Percent of Total Respondents	Score Range
Top Third	19	35.2	$3.6 \geq \bar{x} \geq 3.0$
Middle Third	20	37.0	$3.0 > \bar{x} > 2.6$
Bottom Third	15	27.8	$2.6 \geq \bar{x} \geq 1.5$
Total	54	100.0	

[1]Possible mean score range was from $\bar{x} = 1$ to $\bar{x} = 4$, actual score range was from $\bar{x} = 1.5$ to $\bar{x} = 3.6$.
[2]Groupings are as close to "thirds" as the distribution of scores permitted.

Within the response range of a low score of 1.5 and high score of 3.6, the instrument appeared reasonably sensitive to differences in the amount of power exercised by project leaders in relations with host nationals.

As with the ethnocentricity instrument, although it was hoped that the position power instrument would have proven more sensitive over a broader response range, the position power instrument provided, within the shorter response range, a reasonably sensitive measure of the position power of project leaders.

Summary of instrument examination. Post application of the effectiveness instrument suggested that the use of six effectiveness variables was not entirely substantiated. The four-factor solution factor

analysis indicated the possibility that the change variables did not load individually. In addition, though separate loadings were evident, the distinction between the flexibility and the adaptability variables was not completely clear. However, for the purposes of this study, it was decided to maintain the originally designed six variable distinction in the consideration of effectiveness.

Although the developmental ethnocentricity and position power instruments did not appear to be as sensitive as hoped, it was concluded that for the purposes of this study they were reasonably sensitive measures of their respective variables.

Intercorrelation Matrix of Relationships Between Contextual and Research Variables

An intercorrelation matrix of the contextual and research variables is presented in Table 19. Although "sex" was originally identified as a contextual variable, it was not included in the matrix since there was only one female respondent. For a group of 50 or more respondents, a correlation of the value $r = |.23|$ or larger is required to be statistically significant at the .05 level (Minium, 1970:446). The relationships between the contextual and research variables were examined on the basis of these correlations.

Age. Age was found to correlate significantly with two other contextual variables: (1) educational level and (2) the number of aid projects the respondent had been involved in. The correlation between age and the number of projects the project leader had worked on was not surprising. However, since there was a negative correlation between age and educational level, the indication was that younger C.I.D.A. project

Table 19

Correlation Matrix of Contextual and Research Variables

	Age	Education Level	Length Assignment	No. of Projects	No. of C.I.D.A. Co-operants	No. Host Nationals	Assigned Counterpart	Nature of Project	Location of Project	Production-Initial Goals	Production Side Effects	Adaptability	Flexibility	Institutional Change	People Change	Ethnocentricity	Position Power
Educational Level	-.32[2]																
Length of Assignment	-.17	.08															
Number of Projects	.44[3]	.06	-.13														
Number of C.I.D.A. Co-operants	-.09	.05	.16	-.13													
No. of Host Nationals	-.09	.11	.03	.14	.40[3]												
Assigned Counterpart	.16	-.06	-.05	.21	-.10	-.05											
Nature of Project	-.06	.02	-.10	.08	-.24[1]	.22	-.06										
Location of Project	-.11	.28[2]	-.19	-.06	-.03	-.13	.19	-.05									
Production-Initial Goals	-.02	.15	.13	-.04	-.24[1]	-.13	-.06	.09	.13								
Production Side Effects	.01	.13	.12	-.08	.05	.15	.15	.32[2]	-.11	.34[2]							
Adaptability	.00	-.01	.14	-.18	-.05	-.23[1]	-.03	.07	.08	.43[3]	.20						
Flexibility	.05	-.04	.08	-.05	-.06	-.05	-.12	.04	.00	.25[1]	.02	.42[3]					
Institutional Change	-.29[2]	.01	.43[3]	-.08	.25[1]	.30[2]	.06	.13	-.02	.38[3]	.33[2]	.19	.15				
People Change	-.16	.06	.10	-.13	-.13	-.00	.05	.05	.10	.54[3]	.46[3]	.47[3]	.34[2]	.57[3]			
Ethnocentricity	.32[2]	-.15	-.26[1]	.22	.08	.02	.08	.04	.03	-.01	.00	.01	-.04	-.02	-.08		
Position Power	.31[2]	-.26[1]	.14	.12	-.17	.17	.04	.14	-.20	-.17	.29[1]	.01	-.27[1]	-.05	-.17	.19	

[1]Significant at .05 level.
[2]Significant at .01 level.
[3]Significant at .001 level.

leaders tended to have more formal education.

Age correlated significantly with three of the research variables: (1) institutional change (2) developmental ethnocentricity and (3) position power. The negative correlation between age and institutional change suggested that older project leaders were less likely than younger project leaders to have perceived their projects as effective in inducing institutional change. The positive correlations between age and developmental ethnocentricity and position power suggested the possibility that older project leaders were more supportive of the dominant perspective of development and were more likely to have exercised a higher degree of position power.

Educational level. Educational level was found to significantly correlate with two contextual variables: (1) age, as previously mentioned, and (2) the location of the project. Educational level was found to significantly correlate with one research variable: position power. The negative correlation in this relationship suggested that the more formal education a project leader had the less the amount of power the project leader exercised in relations with host nationals.

Length of assignment. The length of the project leader's most recent assignment did not significantly correlate with any of the contextual variables. However, length of assignment was found to correlate significantly with two research variables: (1) institutional change and (2) developmental ethnocentricity. The positive correlation between length of assignment and institutional change suggested that the longer a project leader worked on a particular project the more institutional type of change there was perceived to have been induced.

The small negative correlation between length of assignment and developmental ethnocentricity suggested the possibility that the longer a project leader worked in a particular third world context the more sensitive this person may have become to third world development demands.

Number of aid projects. The number of aid projects that a project leader had worked on was found to correlate significantly with only the contextual variable of age, as previously mentioned. No significant correlations were found between the number of projects worked on and any of the research variables.

Number of other C.I.D.A. project members. The number of C.I.D.A. co-operants with whom the project leader worked during the most recent project was found to correlate significantly with one contextual variable: the number of host nationals working on the project. It was expected that a larger number of C.I.D.A. co-operants would have indicated a larger project and therefore more host nationals as well. The number of C.I.D.A. co-operants was also found to significantly correlate with one of the research variables: institutional change. This positive correlation suggested that project leaders involved in larger projects perceived their projects to have induced institutional change.

Number of host national project members. The number of host national project members showed no significant correlations with any of the contextual variables except the number of other C.I.D.A. co-operants as previously mentioned.

The number of host national project members was found to correlate significantly with two research variables: (1) adaptability and (2) institutional change. The negative correlation between the number of host nationals and adaptability suggested that project leaders who

worked with larger numbers of host nationals perceived their projects to have been less adaptable. However, the positive correlation between the number of host nationals and institutional change indicated that these same project leaders were more likely to have perceived their project as having induced a larger amount of institutional change.

Assigned counterpart. No significant correlations were found between the assignment of a counterpart to project leaders and any of the contextual or research variables.

Nature of the project. The nature of the project (education, agriculture, mining, etc.) that the project leaders worked on was not found to significantly correlate with any of the contextual variables. However, the nature of the project was found to correlate significantly with one research variable: quantity of side effects. This correlation suggested that the type of project project leaders worked on may have had some bearing upon their perceptions of the quantity of side effects generated by the project's operation.

Location of the project. The location of the projects that the project leaders were involved in showed no significant correlations with any of the contextual or research variables.

Productivity-initial goals.* Productivity of initial goals was not found to significantly correlate with any of the contextual variables. However, productivity of initial goals showed significant positive correlations with five research variables: (1) quantity of side effects (2) adaptability (3) flexibility (4) institutional change and (5) people change.

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*The correlations between the research variables are presented and examined in more detail in Chapter 7.

Quantity of side effects. The quantity of side effects perceived to have been generated by the project's operation was found to correlate significantly with one of the contextual variables: the nature of the project as previously mentioned.

Quantity of side effects also correlated significantly with four other research variables: (1) productivity-initial goals (2) institutional change (3) inducement of people, and (4) position power.

Flexibility. No significant correlations were found between flexibility and any of the contextual variables. A significant positive correlation was found between flexibility and three research variables: (1) productivity of initial goals (2) adaptability and (3) amount of people change. In addition, a significant negative correlation was found between flexibility and position power.

Institutional change. The amount of institutional change was found to significantly correlate with three contextual variables as previously mentioned: (1) age (2) length of assignment and (3) number of host nationals working on the project.

Significant positive correlations were found between the amount of institutional change perceived to have been induced and three research variables: (1) productivity-initial goals (2) quantity of side effects and (3) people change.

People change. The amount of people change that project leaders perceived their projects to have induced was not found to correlate significantly with any contextual variables. However, the inducement of people change was found to positively and significantly correlate with five research variables: (1) productivity of initial goals (2) quantity of side effects (3) adaptability (4) flexibility and (5) institutional

change.

Developmental ethnocentricity. The developmental ethnocentricity of project leaders was found to correlate significantly and positively with two contextual variables as previously mentioned: (1) age and (2) duration of most recent assignment. No significant correlations were found between developmental ethnocentricity and any of the other research variables.

Position power. Position power showed significant correlations with two contextual variables as previously mentioned: (1) age and (2) educational level.

Position power also showed significant correlations with two research variables: (1) a positive correlation with the quantity of side effects and (2) a negative correlation with flexibility.

Discussion. On the basis of the correlations observed between the contextual variables and the research variables, it was concluded that the research variables were relatively independent of the contextual variables. Therefore, it was decided that the relationships between and among the research variables could be explored with no controls for the effects of the contextual variables.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

All data used in this study were collected through the use of a mailed questionnaire (see Appendix A). Addresses were supplied by C.I.D.A. and 235 questionnaires were sent out between August 22nd and August 24th, 1979. One hundred and fifty reminder letters were mailed

on September 3rd, 1979 and a second reminder which included an additional copy of the questionnaire was sent out on September 19th, 1979. October 9th, 1979 was established as the cut off date for questionnaire returns. From an overall return of 179 questionnaires, 54 respondents were identified, in the manner previously described, as the desired respondents for the purposes of this study.

Data Treatment

Data from the completed questionnaires were coded and then keypunched on computer cards for analysis. Responses to the contextual variables were coded by a system the researcher designed for this purpose. Responses to the items on all research variables were coded as per the response indicated. That is, on a scale of one to five for all effectiveness items, on a scale of one to six for the developmental ethnocentricity items and on a scale of one to four for the position power instrument. For computational purposes, questionnaire items 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, and 8 in part III, the developmental ethnocentricity instrument, and item 12 in part IV, the position power instrument, were treated as reversals.

The questionnaire items that comprised each of the research variables examined in this study are presented in Table 20.

The data analysis techniques selected for the purposes of this study were restricted to parametric procedures. In order to justify the use of parametric procedures it is usually required that assumptions be made with regard to the homoscedasticity of the response data. That is, it was assumed that the response data distributions represented both reasonable normality and equal variance between the variable

Table 20

Research Variables and Questionnaire Items Comprising Them

Research Variable	Questionnaire Item[1]
Productivity-Initial Goals	part II : 1, 2, 3
Quantity of Side Effects	part II : 4
Adaptability	part II : 7,8,9,10
Flexibility	part II : 11
Institutional Change	part II : 12
People Change	part II : 13
Developmental Ethnocentrism	part III: all items
Position Power	part IV : all items

[1]See Appendix A for questionnaire items.

response scores. However, the major justification for the use of parametric procedures was the fact that the respondent group in this study did not represent a biased sample, but rather was considered, in some ways, to be a total population. This situation raised questions with regards to the appropriateness of inferential procedures and therefore the importance of the homoscedasticity assumptions. As Popham and Sirotnik (1975:75) pointed out with regards to correlation co-efficients, only where the use of inferential procedures is important is it necessary to satisfy the assumptions of homoscedasticity. Therefore the following analysis procedures were considered suitable and sufficient for the purposes of this study.

Frequencies and distribution of responses. The first data treatment involved the determination of response frequencies and distri-

butions for all questionnaire items and the research variables comprised of these items, using a program from the S.P.S.S. (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

Pearson product moment correlations. Pearson correlations between all questionnaire items and the research variables comprised of these items were determined using a program from the S.P.S.S.

Factor analysis. Part II (effectiveness) of the questionnaire was examined by the technique of factor analysis using a program from the S.P.S.S.

Analysis of variance. In order to examine the effects of the interaction of power position and developmental ethnocentricity, the groupings for these two variables as presented in Table 21 were used in the application of a two-way analysis of variance technique using a program from the S.P.S.S. The resultant respondent groups used for comparison by this technique are presented in Figure 5.

Inferential procedures. With regards to the use of inferential procedures, Popham and Sirotnik (1973:41) stated the following:

> Strictly speaking, inferential procedures are valid only if (1) where there is a target population to which the inferences can be made and (2) where random sampling and/or assignment procedures have been used.

The nature of the respondent group of project leaders and in the manner in which they were identified suggested some serious doubts with regards to the use of inferential procedures in this study. Therefore, in the case of a study such as this one, Popham and Sirotnik (1973:41) proposed the following:

> . . . the researcher can employ inferential techniques so long as it is clear that any inferences made are extra-statistical in nature - that is, inferences which are not statistically valid in a strict sense, but which can serve for heuristically useful purposes.

Table 21

Grouping of Respondents for Two-Way Analysis of Variance

Research Variable	Score for Bottom Grouping	N	Percent of Total Respondents[2]	Score for Top Grouping	N	Percent of Total Respondents
Ethnocentricity[1]	≤ 3	9	16.7	≥ 4	19	35.2
Position Power [2]	≤ 2.6	15	27.8	≥ 3	19	35.2

[1]Grouped by unethnocentric-ethnocentric distinction.
[2]Grouped by as close to bottom and top thirds on response distribution allowed.

Position Power	Developmental Ethnocentricity: High (ethnocentric)	Developmental Ethnocentricity: Low (unethnocentric)
High		
Low		

Figure 5

Description of Cells Created by the Interaction of Developmental Ethnocentricity and Position Power for the Purposes of Two Way Analysis of Variance

It is under these conditions that p values were used in this study.

Significance of correlation co-efficients. The examination of the relationships between the variables used in this study required the calculation of correlation co-efficients. To be reported as statistically significant it was decided that a correlation must be significant

at the .05 level. However, the traditional use of an established significance level is for the purpose of rejection of a stated null hypothesis. The exploratory nature of this study, where research questions rather than research hypothesis were used to provide an analytic framework, suggested that some interpretation of correlations in a "non-statistical" sense was required. That is, there was no need to establish a particular significance level for rejection or acceptance of a research hypothesis.

Therefore, given the exploratory nature of this study, it was decided that special attention would be given to the avoidance of a type II error. That is, in the examination of the research questions regarding the relationships between the study variables, special caution was exercised to avoid concluding that no relationships existed, when in reality they may have existed. As Popham and Sirotnik (1967:50) pointed out, the use of the .05, .01 or lower levels for statistical significance is arbitrary and some researchers ". . . argue that the level of significance should be a function of the hypothesis tested."

Other researchers have suggested that to avoid a type II error, the significance level should be raised. For instance, with regard to correlation co-efficients, Stayrock and Crawford (1978:27) suggested that given previous evidence of a relationship and the existence of possibly crude measures, p values as high as .1 or .2 could be considered significant to avoid type II errors. In addition, Nie et. al. (1975:268) proposed that ". . . if a type II error has the worse consequence, the significance level could be raised [from typical values of .05 and .01], e.g. .10."

Although the exploratory nature of this study and the experimental nature of the instruments developed for the purposes of this study provided some justification for raising significance levels, it was decided that in reporting and discussing the results of the study, the usual maximum statistical significance level of .05 would be maintained for correlation co-efficients. However, in recognition of the possibility of type II errors, it was also decided that it would serve a heuristic purpose to examine correlation co-efficients that were not statistically significant at the .05 level, but were perhaps indicative of an existing relationship. The examination of these non-statistically significant values was guided by the following constraints:

(1) Non-statistically significant values were only examined where the absence of statistically significant values would indicate that no relationships exist.

(2) No p values greater than .10 were considered.

(3) Interpretations based upon non-statistically significant values were clearly distinguished from interpretations based upon statistically significant correlation co-efficients.

SUMMARY

The following were included in this chapter: (1) the research design, including a description of the research variables and the procedures used to select the respondents, (2) the instrument selection procedure including pre- and post-application examination of the instrumentation and (3) the research methodology including an outline of the data collection and treatment methods.

In the research design part of this chapter, the purpose, conceptual framework and research questions of the study were stated. Questionnaire respondents who indicated that they were project team leaders were identified as the desired respondent group for the purposes of this study.

In the second section of this chapter, the procedures used to examine the instrumentation, both before and after application in the actual study, were described. It was decided on the basis of an intercorrelation matrix for contextual and research variables that no controls for the effects of the contextual variables would be considered.

In the final section of this chapter, the research methodology was discussed. It was indicated that the following data analysis techniques were used: (1) response frequencies and distributions, (2) factor analysis, (3) Pearson product moment correlations, and (4) two-way analysis of variance.

In the next chapter, the respondents used in this study are described in more detail by reporting the findings with regard to research questions 1, 2, and 3. The questionnaire response rate is also reported in the next chapter.

Chapter 6

FINDINGS: RESEARCH QUESTIONS 1, 2, AND 3

In this chapter the research findings are reported in order to provide answers to research questions 1, 2, and 3. Research questions 1, 2, and 3 prescribed the task of describing the study respondents according to the three research variables developmental ethnocentricity, position power, and perceptions of development project effectiveness. A discussion of the response rate for the questionnaire is also included in this chapter.

RESPONSE RATE

The questionnaire was distributed by mail to all C.I.D.A. co-operants (i) who had returned to Canada between 1976 and April 1979, (ii) whose job description/speciality suggested that they may have been a project team leader and (iii) for whom addresses were available. Two hundred and thirty-five questionnaires were sent out; 26 to Quebec and 209 to all other provinces and the Northwest Territories. No questionnaires were sent to the Yukon Territory. Two reminders were sent, the second of which included an additional copy of the questionnaire and stamped return envelope. Because of the small number of possible French speaking respondents, it was not considered feasible to translate the questionnaire into French. However, a covering letter written in both French and English was sent to Quebec respondents explaining this situation. The response rates for the questionnaires sent out

is presented in Table 22. The relatively large number of unusable returns was not unexpected considering the fact that the questionnaire was sent to many individuals for whom the questionnaire was not designed. For instance, those individuals who had no host nationals working on their project would have had difficulty with part IV (position power) of the questionnaire. The unusable returns included the following: (1) insufficiently completed; (2) moved, address unknown; (3) individuals who felt that the information requested was confidential; (4) individuals who indicated they did not fill out questionnaires of any kind and (5) one individual who was on the C.I.D.A. listing but indicated he did not work on a C.I.D.A. project.

With respect to questionnaire return rates, Travers (1964:297) suggested the following:

> A questionnaire of some interest to the recipient may be expected to show only a 20% return even when conditions are favorable. If non-respondents are contacted a 2nd and 3rd time, the returns may be increased by 30%. Only rarely does it reach the 40% level.

Kerlinger (1965:397) was considerably more optimistic in stating the following:

> Responses to mail questionnaires are generally poor. Returns of less than 40 to 50% are common. High percentages are rare. At best the researcher must content himself with returns as low as 50 to 60%.

In addition, Mouly (1970:256) reported Shannon's (1948) finding of an average of a 65% return ". . . for reputable questionnaire studies reported in theses, dissertations and professional articles." Therefore, it was concluded that the overall return rate of 64.3% in the study was quite satisfactory. Furthermore, it may have been that the 54 project leaders identified from the larger respondent group represented a

Table 22

Distribution and Return of Questionnaire

Questionnaire Destination	Total Potential Respondents	Number of Returns	Percent of Total Respondents	Number Unusable[1]	Total Usable[1]	Percent of Total Respondents
Quebec	26	12	46.2	3	9	34.6
Other Provinces and Territories	209	167	79.9	25	142	67.9
Total	235	179	76.2	28	151	64.3

[1]Unusable, usable does not refer to usable in the sense of the desired group of project leader but rather in terms of the questionnaires completed in sufficient detail to provide information with regards to both project leader status and all research variables.

larger percentage of all project leaders because they were more likely to complete a questionnaire which was designed specifically for them. This suggested that it was reasonable to conclude that returns from the non-respondent group would have had a negligible effect upon the research results.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RESPONDENTS

Personal and contextual data were collected in part I of the questionnaire for the purposes of identifying the respondents who met the following criteria; (1) project co-leaders or leaders, (2) were overseas at least one year and (3) had at least one host national working on their most recent project. In addition, the project leaders were described with regards to their responses to the research variables.

Sex

There were 53 males and only one female within the project leader group.

Age

The ages of the project leaders were evenly distributed between a low of 35 to a high of 73. The mean age of the respondents was 53.7 years and the mode, with four people, was 63 years.

Educational Level

The highest educational level achieved by the project leaders ranged from grade 10 to Ph.D. The number of project leaders who had

reached each of six formal educational levels is presented in Table 23.

Table 23

Highest Educational Levels Reached by Project Leaders

N = 54

Educational Level	N	Percent of Total Respondents
No Post-Secondary Education	9	16.7
Technical Training or Community College	3	5.6
Bachelors	16	29.5
Diploma: Post Bachelors	3	5.6
Masters	12	22.2
Ph.D. or M.D.	11	20.4
Total	54	100.0

Number of C.I.D.A. Projects

For 35 (64.8%) of the project leaders, the project about which they answered the questionnaire was their first C.I.D.A. project. One project leader had been involved with nine or more projects. The project leaders and the number of C.I.D.A. projects they had been involved with is presented in Table 24.

Length of Assignment

The durations of the project leaders' most recent assignments are presented in Table 25. The mean number of years on assignment was 2.6 years and 68.5% of the project leaders were on assignment for either

Table 24

Project Leaders: Number of C.I.D.A. Projects Involved With

N = 54

Number of Projects	N	Percent of Total Respondents
1	35	64.8
2	12	22.2
3	4	7.4
4	2	3.7
9 or more	1	1.9
Total	54	100.0

Table 25

Duration of Project Leaders Most Recent Assignment

N = 54

Duration: Number of Years	N	Percent of Total Respondents
1	8	14.8
2	21	38.9
3	16	29.6
4	6	11.1
5	2	3.7
6	1	1.9
Total	54	100.0

two or three years.

Project Size

As indicated by the number of other Canadians and the number of host nationals who worked with the project leaders on the project leader's most recent assignment, the projects ranged widely in size.

Number of other Canadians. The number of other Canadians ranged from none to 28. The mean number of other Canadians was 4.5 and the mode, with 12 project leaders, was one other Canadian.

Number of host nationals. All project leaders used as respondents in this study had host nationals working with them. The number of host nationals ranged from one to greater than 100. The mean number of host nationals working with the project leaders was 26.2 and the mode, with nine project leaders, was one host national. Eight project leaders had more than 100 host nationals working with them on their most recent project.

Project Type

The largest number of a particular project type was education, with 17 project leaders or 31.5% of the total involved in education type projects. The other project types ranged in number from one to five and included the following: agriculture (5), mining (3), avionics (3), power (3), water/sewage (3), transportation (2), fisheries (2), communications (2), forestry (2), statistics (2), medical/health (2), economic development (2), wildlife (1), investment banking (1), housing (1), food and drug (1), construction (1), and bakery operation (1).

Location of Project

The majority of the project leaders (72.2%) worked on projects

located in Africa. The locations of the projects are presented in Table 26.

Table 26

Location of Project Leader's Most Recent Project

N = 54

Location of Project	N	Percent of Total Respondents
Caribbean	9	16.7
Africa	39	72.2
Asia	3	5.5
S.E. Asia	1	1.9
Pacific	2	3.7
Total	54	100.0

PROJECT LEADERS AND RESEARCH VARIABLES: RESEARCH QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

Research questions 1, 2 and 3 prescribed the task of describing the project leaders with regards to the three major research variables.

Research Question #1: Developmental Ethnocentricity

Research question #1 was stated as follows:

> Were project leaders developmentally ethnocentric or developmentally unethnocentric?

Findings. A grouped distribution of the scores of project leaders to the developmental ethnocentricity variable is presented in Table 27. A detailed presentation of the distribution of responses is included in Appendix C. The mean score on the 12 items of 3.71 indicated

Table 27

Project Leaders: Grouped Distribution of Developmental Ethnocentricity Scores

N = 54

Score[1]	N	Percent of Total Respondents
$3 \geq \bar{x} \geq 1$	9	16.7
$3.5 > \bar{x} > 3$	14	25.9
$\bar{x} = 3.5$	0	0
$4 > \bar{x} > 3.5$	12	22.2
$6 \geq \bar{x} \geq 4$	19	35.2
Total	54	100.0
Mean Score	3.71	
Standard Deviation	.70	

[1]Scores are reported as means and indicate degree of developmental ethnocentricity where $\bar{x} = 1$ would be least ethnocentric and $\bar{x} = 6$ most ethnocentric.

that project leaders, as a group, were slightly developmentally ethnocentric. That is, given the nature of the six-point response scale comprising of three degrees of opposition and three degrees of support, a score of greater than 3.5 indicated overall support for developmentally ethnocentric statements and overall opposition to developmentally unethnocentric statements. Similarly, a score of less than 3.5 indicated overall support for developmentally unethnocentric statements and overall opposition to developmentally ethnocentric statements. However, as

previously mentioned, it was felt that scores between 3 and 4 were not clearly indicative of support or opposition for one or the other of the dominant or liberation perspectives. Therefore, project leaders who scored less than or equal to 3 were considered as clearly developmentally unethnocentric, or supportive of the liberation perspective of development while project leaders who scored greater than or equal to 4 were considered clearly developmentally ethnocentric or supportive of the dominant perspective of development. Using this method of grouping, nine (16.7%) of the project leaders were considered clearly developmentally unethnocentric while 19 (35.2%) of the project leaders were considered clearly developmentally ethnocentric.

The Pearson correlations between the ethnocentricity score and the individual test items were previously presented in Table 13, Chapter 5. It was mentioned at that time that item 1 of the ethnocentricity instrument showed a substantially lower correlation than the other items. With regard to item 1, it was noted that 83.4% of the respondents supported the contention that internal deficiencies in developing nations were the real sources of underdevelopment. Although this item did not appear to be particularly sensitive in terms of distinguishing between ethnocentric and unethnocentric project leaders, it did lend support to the conclusion that project leaders were somewhat more supportive of the dominant perspective of the sources of underdevelopment than the liberation perspective of the sources of underdevelopment.

Regarding the correlations between the ethnocentricity scores and the 12 item scores, it was observed that the "average" correlation was $r = |.46|$. This tended to support Levinson's (1950:145) observation

that people were not entirely consistent in their ethnocentrism. With regards to project leaders, this average correlation indicated that they were developmentally ethnocentric on some issues and unethnocentric on others.

Conclusion: research question #1. The project leaders used as respondents in this study appeared, as a group, to be slightly developmentally ethnocentric. That is, they tended to indicate more support for the dominant perspectives of development/underdevelopment than for the liberation perspectives of development/underdevelopment. However, nine (16.7%) of the project leaders were considered to be developmentally unethnocentric or supportive of the liberation perspectives of development/underdevelopment. Finally, the findings suggested that project leaders were not entirely consistent in their support or opposition for one or the other of the divergent development perspectives.

Research Question #2: Position Power

Research question #2 was stated as follows:

What degree of position power did project leaders exercise in relations with host nationals?

Findings. A grouped distribution of the scores of project leaders on the position power variable is presented in Table 28. A detailed presentation of the distribution of responses is included in Appendix C. Between a low score of 1.50 and a high score of 3.58, the scores appeared to have been evenly distributed with 26 different scores within this score range. The nature of the questionnaire items, with a four-point response scale ranging from never = 1, rarely = 2, occasionally = 3 and regularly - 4, suggested that a score of less than

Table 28

Project Leaders: Grouped Distribution of Position Power Scores

N = 54

Score[1]	N	Percent of Total Respondents
$2 \geq \bar{x} \geq 1$	6	11.2
$2.5 > \bar{x} > 2$	9	16.7
$\bar{x} = 2.5$	1	1.9
$3 > \bar{x} > 2.5$	20	37.0
$4 \geq \bar{x} \geq 3$	19	35.2
Total	54	100.0
Mean Score 2.72		
Standard Deviation .46		

[1]Scores are reported as means and indicate degree of position power where $\bar{x} = 1$ would be lowest position power and $\bar{x} = 4$ the highest position power.

2.5 could be considered a low position power and a mean score greater than 2.5 a high position power. However, as with the developmental ethnocentricity scores, it was felt that the in-between group, in this case those scores between 2 and 3, were not clearly low or high position power scores. Therefore, while only six (11.2%) of the project leaders scored 2 or less, indicating a low position power, 19 (35.2%) of the project leaders had a score of 3 or larger, indicating that they exercised a high position power. Furthermore, the mean score of 2.72

on a four-point scale indicated that project leaders, as a group, were slightly on the "high" side with regards to exercising of position power.

The Pearson correlations between the position power score and the individual test items were presented previously in Table 16, Chapter 5. It was pointed out at this time that item 12 of the position power instrument showed a lower correlation with the position power score than did the other items. An examination of the response distributions for item 12 showed that 45 (83.4%) of the project leaders felt that either "occasionally" or "regularly" host national project members were capable of replacing them in some aspect of the leadership of the project. This suggested, with regards to this item, that project leaders exercised a low power position in relations with host nationals working on their projects.

Regarding the correlations between the position power score and the 12 item scores, it was observed that the "average" correlation was $r = |.4901|$. This suggested that project leaders exercised position power in one or more areas and not others. This was not unexpected given the fact that the position power items were originally developed on the basis of French and Raven's (1958) five categories of power.

Conclusion: research question #2. The project leaders used as respondents in this study appeared to have exercised a high degree of position power in relations with host nationals. Although the mean position power score was only 2.72 on a four-point scale, 19 (35.2%) of the project leaders scored 3 or greater out of a possible 4. However, with regards to at least one item (item 12), 45 (83.4%) of the project leaders indicated they exercised a low position power. Further-

more, there was evidence that a project leader exercised a low position power regarding one or more of the five bases of position power while exercising a high position power regarding the others.

Research Question #3: Effectiveness

Research question #3 was stated as follows:

> How did project leaders perceive the effectiveness of their development project?

Findings. The responses of the project leaders to the study variables concerned with effectiveness are presented in Table 29. Although not previously identified as an effectiveness variable, perceptions of the overall effectiveness of the project are also presented in Table 29. For the productivity-initial goals and adaptability variables, the scores were reported as mean scores of the items comprising these variables and the number of responses for each step of the response scale was determined by the grouping of the scores around each step of the scale. A detailed presentation of the distribution of responses for these two variables is included in Appendix C.

The mean scores of the project leaders on all of the effectiveness variables were greater than 3. This indicated that, as a group, project leaders perceived their projects to have been relatively effective. In addition, 32 (60.4%) of the project leaders rated the overall effectiveness of their projects as either "very high" or "quite high."

The highest mean score on the effectiveness variables occurred for adaptability with a mean score of 3.87. This high mean score, plus the fact that the lowest score for the adaptability variable was 2.8 suggested that project leaders perceived their projects to have been

Table 29

Project Leaders: Distribution of Effectiveness Scores

Effectiveness Variable	Response Scale[1] N (%)					Mean Score	Standard Deviation
	1	2	3	4	5		
Adaptability[2] (N = 53)	0	0	9(17)	36(67.9)	8(15.1)	3.87	.51
Flexibility (N = 52)	0	6(11.5)	11(21.2)	25(48.1)	10(19.2)	3.75	.91
Institutional Change (N = 53)	2(3.8)	5(9.4)	11(20.8)	24(45.2)	11(20.8)	3.70	1.01
Productivity[2]- Initial Goals (N = 53)	1(1.9)	2(3.8)	14(26.4)	33(61.2)	3(5.7)	3.66	.76
Quantity of Side Effects (N = 53)	4(7.5)	5(9.4)	18(34.0)	21(39.7)	5(9.4)	3.34	1.01
People Change (N = 53)	4(7.5)	5(9.4)	24(45.3)	16(30.2)	4(7.5)	3.20	.99
Overall Effectiveness (N = 53)	2(3.8)	4(7.5)	15(28.3)	26(49.1)	6(11.3)	3.57	.93

[1]Scale wordings vary with each variable; see questionnaire, Appendix A, for specific scale wordings.

[2]Where variable comprised of more than one item, grouping of responses around response scale are presented. See Appendix C for detailed presentation of response distribution.

very adaptable. The flexibility scores were of a similar magnitude. With a mean flexibility score of 3.75 and a minimum score of 2, it was concluded that project leaders perceived their projects to have been quite flexible. In addition, while only six project leaders rated their projects as 2 or "not very well" in coping with emergencies, 35 (67.3%) gave their projects a score of 4 or 5, indicating that they perceived their projects to have done a good or excellent job in this area.

Productivity of initial goals and inducement of institutional change had the next highest mean scores with a productivity mean score of 3.66 and an institutional change mean score of 3.70. Regarding the inducement of institutional change, only two project leaders gave their projects a score of 2, indicating that they perceived their projects to have induced "very little" institutional change. However, 35 (66%) of the project leaders rated their projects either 4 or 5, indicating that they perceived their project to have induced either "a lot" or a "very large amount" of institutional change. Similarly, 25 (47.2%) of the project leaders rated their projects as 4 or higher with regards to the productivity of initial goals. However, 12 (22.4%) of the project leaders scored 3 or less, indicating that they may not have been impressed with the productivity regarding the initial goals of the project.

The lowest effectiveness scores occurred for the variables, productivity of side effects and inducement of people change, with a mean score of 3.34 on the side effects variable and 3.21 on the people change variable. Although still on the positive side with regards to the project leaders' perceptions of the effectiveness of their projects, these mean scores indicated that project leaders, as a group, perceived

their projects to have been considerably less effective in these areas.

The distribution of the respondents' perceptions of the quantity of side effects induced by their projects' operations showed that four (7.5%) of the project leaders rated their project 1, indicating that "none" was produced, while five (9.4%) rated their projects 5, indicating that they perceived the productivity of side effects to be "very high." Similarly, with people change, four (7.5%) of the project leaders rated their projects as 1, indicating that "very little" was induced, while four (7.5%) rated their projects 5, indicating that they perceived their projects to have induced "a very large amount" of people change.

It was previously pointed out that 32 (60.4%) of the project leaders rated the overall effectiveness of their projects as "quite high" or "very high." Pearson product moment correlations between the overall effectiveness item (item 15) and the other effectiveness variables are presented in Table 30. The overall effectiveness item correlated significantly with all effectiveness variables except flexibility. However, the correlation with the side effects variable was only $r = .23$ while the correlation with productivity of initial goals was $r = .69$. This suggested that project leaders did not perceive flexibility or side effects as important effectiveness criteria, but did require their projects to be productive in terms of initial goals before they could be considered effective.

Conclusion: research question #3. Project leaders, as a group, tended to perceive their projects as having been effective. They perceived their projects to have been most effective with regards to adaptability, flexibility, institutional change, and productivity of

Table 30

Pearson Correlations between Overall Effectiveness and Effectiveness Variables

Variable	Correlation with Overall Effectiveness	Significance Level
Productivity-Initial Goals (N = 53)	.69	.001
Productivity - Side Effects (N = 53)	.23	.045
Adaptability (N = 53)	.42	.001
Flexibility (N = 52)	.07	.298
Institutional Change (N = 53)	.44	.001
People Change (N = 53)	.49	.001

initial goals, and least effective with regards to both the quantity of side effects produced and the inducement of people change. That is, project leaders perceived their projects as least effective with regards to the liberation effectiveness concerns. In addition, project leaders tended to perceive the overall effectiveness of their projects primarily in terms of the dominant concern for the productivity of initial goals.

Summary of Findings: Research Questions 1, 2 and 3

Mean scores on all research variables indicated that project leaders as a group (i) tended to be slightly developmentally ethnocentric (ii) exercised a degree of position power slightly on the high side and (iii) perceived their projects as having been relatively effective.

With regards to research question #1, although slightly ethnocentric as a group, nine project leaders indicated support for the liberation perspectives of development/underdevelopment.

With regards to research question #2, although project leaders as a group tended to exercise a position power consistent with the dominant perspective of development, six project leaders indicated that they "never" or "rarely" exercised their position power in relations with host nationals.

With regards to research question #3, although project leaders as a group perceived the overall effectiveness of their projects as high, they tended to view the overall effectiveness primarily in terms of the dominant effectiveness concern for productivity of initial goals. In addition, project leaders perceived their projects as least effective in terms of the liberation concerns for side effects and people change.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the response rate of the questionnaire was discussed and the desired respondent group, project leaders, were described with regards to selected contextual variables and the research variables.

The overall response rate was reported to be 76.2% with the usable returns comprising 64.3% of the total number of questionnaires sent out. No efforts were made to determine the nature of the non-respondent group.

Respondent characteristics described were sex, age, educationaal level, the number of projects involved in, length of their most recent

assignment, project size, type, and location.

In the largest section of this chapter, the findings of the study with regards to research questions 1, 2, and 3 were presented. This prescribed the task of describing the project leaders with regards to the three research variables; developmental ethnocentricity, position power and perceptions of development project effectiveness.

In the next chapter in the study the findings with regards to research questions 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 are reported.

Chapter 7

FINDINGS: RESEARCH QUESTIONS 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 AND 9

In order to explore the relationships between and among the contextual, developmental ethnocentricity, position power and effectiveness variables, six research questions were derived from the literature and theory in these three areas, and the conceptual framework developed for this study. These research questions were presented in Chapter 5 as research questions 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9. The research findings concerning the relationships among the contextual, developmental ethnocentricity, position power and effectiveness are presented in this chapter.

Research Question #4

Research question #4 was stated as follows:

> What was the relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and project leader position power on the development project?

Findings. This question was answered by computing Pearson product moment correlations between developmental ethnocentricity and position power and between developmental ethnocentricity and each of the items comprising the position power variable. These correlations are presented in Table 31.

It can be seen from Table 31 that the correlation between developmental ethnocentricity and position power was not statistically significant. However, statistically significant correlations existed

between the developmental ethnocentricity variable and three of the individual items comprising the position power variable.

Table 31

Pearson Correlations Between the Developmental Ethnocentricity Variable and Position Power Variable and Items Comprising the Position Power Variable

N = 54

Variable and Individual Items		Correlation with Ethnocentricity Variable[1]	Significance Level
Position Power Variable		.19	.08
Position Power Items[2]:	1	-.24	.04
	2	.03	.41
	3	.10	.24
	4	.17	.10
	5	-.09	.27
	6	.01	.46
	7	.19	.08
	8	.32	.01
	9	.35	.006
	10	.17	.11
	11	.09	.26
	12	.11	.21

[1]Correlation co-efficient of the value r = |.231| required for significance at .05 level.
[2]See questionnaire, Appendix A, for questionnaire item, Part IV.

A small negative correlation of the value r = -.24 existed between developmental ethnocentricity and item 1 on the position power instrument. Slightly larger positive correlations existed between developmental ethnocentricity and items 8 and 9. These correlations

were of the value .32 and .34 respectively. In the development of the position power instrument, item 1 was considered as one of the measures of "reward or coercive power" (French and Raven, 1958), while items 8 and 9 were considered measures of "expert power" (French and Raven, 1958).

Discussion. Although a statistically significant correlation between the developmental ethnocentricity variable and the position power variable was not found, it was observed that a positive correlation between these variables existed, though only significant at the .08 level. This suggested the possibility of a positive relationship between these two variables, although evidence indicating (i) that only 4% of the variance in the position power variable was related to variance in the ethnocentricity variable and (ii) that there was an 8% possibility that this relationship could have occurred by chance, cannot be considered in any way conclusive.

However, there was evidence of existing relationships between developmental ethnocentricity and the individual items comprising the position power variable. The negative correlation between developmental ethnocentricity and item 1, though only of the value $r = -.24$, suggested that project leaders with higher ethnocentricity measures tended to exercise less reward power. However, the larger, positive correlations between ethnocentricity and items 8 and 9 indicated that project leaders with higher ethnocentricity measures tended to perceive their positions as high expertise positions and exercised this expert power accordingly. Furthermore, with regards to the correlations between ethnocentricity and items 8 and 9, the evidence indicating (i) that approximately 10% and 12% of the variance in these items, respectively, was due to the variance in the ethnocentricity variable and (ii) that there was a 1% or

less probability that these relationships would be due to chance, were considered important in suggesting the existence of a positive relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and the exercising of expert power.

Conclusion: research question #4. From the evidence presented above, it was feasible to conclude that there was no relationship between project leader developmental ethnocentricity and the exercising of an overall position power. This conclusion was reached on the basis of the absence of a statistically significant correlation when the relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and position power was examined. However, two facts suggested that a "no" answer to research question #4, although in some regards justifiable, did not serve the purposes of the exploratory nature of this study.

These facts were as follows:

(1) Although not statistically significant, at the .05 level, the correlation between the developmental ethnocentricity and position power variable was significant at the .10 level.

(2) Significant correlations existed between developmental ethnocentricity and items 8 and 9 of the position power instrument. Therefore, in recognizing the exploratory nature of this study, it seemed appropriate to answer research question #1 as follows: Although the evidence was by no means conclusive, there was marginal support for the proposition that project leaders operationalized their orientation towards one of the divergent development paradigms by assuming an appropriate position power in relations with host national project members. This conclusion suggested, for example, that project leaders who supported

the dominant perspective of development exercised a higher degree of overall position power than did project leaders who supported the liberation perspective. However, the marginal relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and position power may have been primarily due to the apparent strong relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and expert power--one of the five theoretical bases of the position power variables.

Research Question #5

Research question #5 was stated as follows:

> What was the relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

Findings. The Pearson correlations between developmental ethnocentricity and each of the six selected indicators of development project effectiveness are presented in Table 32.

Table 32

Pearson Correlation Between Developmental Ethnocentricity and the Six Effectiveness Variables

Effectiveness Indicator	Correlation with Developmental Ethnocentricity[1]
Productivity-Initial Goals	-0.01
Quantity of Side Effects	0.00
Adaptability	0.01
Flexibility	-0.04
Institutional Change	-0.02
People Change	-0.08

[1]Correlation co-efficient of the value r = |.23| or larger required for significance at the .05 level.

It can readily be seen that nothing remotely close to a significant correlation co-efficient existed.

Discussion. On the basis of the observed correlations, it was obvious that no significant relationships existed between a project leader's developmental ethnocentricity and his perception of any of the six effectiveness indicators.

Conclusion: research question #5. It was confidently concluded, for the respondents and instrumentation used in this study, that project leaders did not operationalize their support for one or the other of the divergent development paradigms through their perceptions of the effectiveness of their projects.

Research Question #6

Research question #6 was stated as follows:

> What was the relationship between project leader position power on the development project, and the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

Findings. The Pearson correlations between the position power variable and each of the six effectiveness variables are presented in Table 33. Significant correlations at the .05 level existed between the position power variable and two of the effectiveness indicators: (1) a positive correlation with the quantity of side effects perceived to have been produced and (2) a negative correlation with perceptions of the project's flexibility.

Discussion. The significant correlations indicated that relationships existed between a project leader's position power and his perceptions of the effectiveness of his project. For example, the positive correlation between position power and quantity of side effects suggested

Table 33

Pearson Correlations Between Position Power and Six Effectiveness Variables

Effectiveness Variable	Correlation with Position Power Variable	Significance Level
Productivity-Initial Goals	-0.16	.12
Quantity of Side Effects	.28	.02
Adaptability	.01	.49
Flexibility	-0.27	.03
Institutional Change	-0.05	.37
People Change	-0.17	.11

that project leaders who exercised a high degree of position power also perceived their project as productive with regards to side effects. However, the negative correlation between position power and flexibility suggested that high position power project leaders did not perceive their projects to have been as flexible as did lower position power project leaders.

Conclusion: research question #6. The research findings indicated that the degree of power exercised by a project leader affected his perceptions of both the operation and the product of his development project. Specifically, significant relationships were observed between the position power variable and both the flexibility and side effects variables.

There was no evidence to suggest that relationships existed between position power and any of the other four effectiveness indicators.

Research Question #7

Research question #7 was stated as follows:

> What was the relationship between the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power and the selected indicators of project effectiveness?

It has already been concluded that developmental ethnocentricity was totally unrelated to perceptions of effectiveness and, in a statistically significant sense, unrelated to position power. Therefore, it was reasonable to conclude that a relationship between the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power and effectiveness was also non-existent. However, it was decided that a two-way analysis of variance technique should be employed to determine the interaction, if any, between these two variables considered as one independent variable, in relation to each of the six effectiveness variables as dependent variables. In the manner previously described in Chapter 5, and for the purposes of two-way analysis of variance, a four cell matrix was developed. This matrix is represented as Figure 6.

		Developmental Ethnocentricity	
		High	Low
Position Power	High	N = 7	N = 2
	Low	N = 2	N = 3

Figure 6

Four Cell Matrix for Two-Way Analysis of Variance: Developmental Ethnocentricity and Position Power

Findings. The findings obtained from the application of the two-way analysis of variance technique were examined regarding two concerns salient to research question #7: (i) the "interaction" between developmental ethnocentricity and position power and (ii) the "main effects" when these two variables were considered as one independent variable in relation to each of the effective indicators as dependent variables.

Statistically significant interactions. No statistically significant interactions were found between the pair of independent variables, developmental ethnocentricity and position power, when any of the effectiveness variables were considered as dependent variables. The observed interactions are presented in Table 34.

Table 34

Two-Way Interaction Effects Obtained Through Two-Way Analysis of Variance for Developmental Ethnocentricity and Position Power as Interacting Independent Variables

Effectiveness Indicator (Dependent Variables)	TWO-WAY INTERACTION	
	F Ratio[1]	Significance
Productivity-Initial Goals	.37	.56
Quantity of Side Effects	.13	.72
Adaptability	.18	.68
Flexibility	.11	.74
Institutional Change	.87	.37
People Change	.22	.65

[1]An F ratio of 4.78 is required for significance at the .05 level.

Discussion: The absence of any significant interaction effect suggested that the effects of developmental ethnocentricity and position power were uniform when one or the other was considered either high or low. That is, the effect of developmental ethnocentricity on any of the effectiveness variables did not vary from high position power to low position power. Or, vice-versa, the effect of position power on any of the effectiveness variables did not vary from low developmental ethnocentricity to high developmental ethnocentricity. As Nie et. al. (1975:403) suggested, when no significant interaction effects are found, the next step is to test for main effects.

Statistically significant effects. Table 35 presents a summary of the main effects obtained as a result of the two-way analysis of variance tests. Only one statistically significant F ratio was found: position power as a main effect variable with regard to the quantity of side effects produced. The results of the two-way analysis of variance test on the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power where quantity of side effects was the dependent variable is presented in Table 36.

Discussion: Although it was observed that there was only one main effect F ratio significant at the .05 level, two others were significant at the .10 level: developmental ethnocentricity as a main effect with regard to both productivity of initial goals and adaptability. Furthermore, although the only statistically significant main effect occurred for position power with regards to quantity of side effects, in all other cases (except institutional change where no main effect was observed) developmental ethnocentricity provided the main effect.

Table 35

Summary of Main Effects Obtained as a Result of Two-Way Analysis of Variance Tests for Developmental Ethnocentricity and Position Power as Interacting Independent Variables

Main Effect Variable	Other Variable	Effectiveness Variable	F Ratio[1]	Significance Level
Developmental Ethnocentricity	Position Power	Productivity-Initial Goals	4.47	.061
Position Power	Developmental Ethnocentricity	Quantity of Side Effects	9.56	.012
Developmental Ethnocentricity	Position Power	Adaptability	3.34	.098
Developmental Ethnocentricity	Position Power	Flexibility	3.02	.113
Equal Effects		Institutional Change	----	----
Developmental Ethnocentricity	Position Power	People Change	2.205	.168

[1]An F ratio of 4.78 is required for significance at the .05 level.

Table 36

Results of Two-Way Analysis of Variance Test Where Quantity of Side Effects was the Dependent Variable

		Developmental Ethnocentricity		
		High	Low	
Position Power	High	N = 7 $\bar{x}$ = 3.71 α = .76	N = 2 $\bar{x}$ = 4.5 α = .71	Main Effect on Position Power p = .012
	Low	N = 2 $\bar{x}$ = 2.0 α = 1.4	N = 3 $\bar{x}$ = 2.3 α = 1.5	

Although it could be stated with some confidence that position power provided the main effect when position power and developmental ethnocentricity interacted as independent variables with regards to quantity of side effects as a dependent variable, there was also some marginal evidence that in the overall relationship with effectiveness, developmental ethnocentricity may have provided the main effect.

Conclusion: research question #7. It should first be stated that any conclusions reached from the evidence gathered through the two-way analysis of variance technique employed in this study were interpreted with caution due to the small frequencies that occurred in each cell of the four cell matrix created to define the four groups for two-way analysis of variance purposes. In addition, unequal cell frequencies existed with the cell where developmental ethnocentricity and position power were both high containing seven respondents, more than twice the number in any other cell. However, although accepting the tentative nature of the observations, it was decided worthwhile, if only for heuristic reasons, to attempt to provide a reasonable answer to research question #4.

When developmental ethnocentricity and position power were considered as an interacting pair of independent variables in relationship to the six effectiveness variables, the following situations were observed:

(1) Position power appeared more influential than developmental ethnocentricity when quantity of side effects was the dependent variable.

(2) When institutional change was the dependent variable, neither position power nor developmental ethnocentricity appeared more influen-

tial in the relationship.

(3) When productivity-initial goals and adaptability were the dependent variables, the evidence, though not statistically significant, indicated that the developmental ethnocentricity variable was marginally more influential than position power in these relationships.

(4) When flexibility and people change were the dependent variables, although F ratios indicated that developmental ethnocentricity was more influential, the significance of these ratios did not warrant the reaching of any conclusion, however tentative, with regards to influence in these relationships.

Research Question #8

Research question #8 was stated as follows:

> What was the relationship between the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

Findings. Pearson product moment correlations among the six effectiveness indicators were computed. An intercorrelation matrix for the six effectiveness variables is presented in Table 37. A number of correlations significant at the .05 or less level existed. The only correlations not significant at the .05 level occurred with regards to the relationships between adaptability and flexibility, and both the quantity of side effects and the institutional change indicators. In addition, productivity of initial goals and people change each showed significant correlations with all five other effectiveness indicators.

Discussion. The correlations among the six effectiveness indicators certainly suggested that positive relationships existed between these variables. Considering that all indicators were concerned with project effectiveness, the existence of strong relationships should not

Table 37

Correlation Matrix Between the Effectiveness Variables

	Productivity-Initial Goals	Side Effects	Adaptability	Flexibility	Institutional Change
Quantity of Side Effects	.3372[2]				
Adaptability	.4301[3]	.1961			
Flexibility	.2496[1]	.0260	.4160[3]		
Institutional Change	.3751[3]	.3320[2]	.1886	.1460	
People Change	.5412[3]	.4558[3]	.4672[3]	.3390[2]	.3653[2]

[1]Significant at .05 level.
[2]Significant at .01 level.
[3]Significant at .001 level.

have been unexpected. However, it was noteworthy that no significant relationships existed between the two indicators concerned with the project's operation, adaptability and flexibility, and two of the indicators concerned with the project's product: quantity of side effects and institutional change. This suggested the possibility that project team leaders did not consider these two process variables as necessary or important for the production of side effects and institutional change.

In addition, productivity of initial goals and people change correlated significantly with all other effectiveness variables. This suggested that project leaders who perceived their projects as having had high measures of productivity of initial goals and people change also perceived their projects to have had high measures on all other

effectiveness variables.

Also noteworthy, was the fact that the strongest correlation existed between productivity of initial goals and people change. This strong relationship was more or less unanticipated since productivity was an effectiveness concern derived from the dominant development perspective, while people change was an effectiveness concern derived from the liberation perspective.

Conclusion: research question #8. A large number of relationships of varying significance existed between the six effectiveness indicators identified for the purposes of this study.

(1) The productivity of initial goals and the people change variable formed the strongest relationships, both with each other and the other effectiveness variables.

(2) With regards to adaptability-flexibility, the two effectiveness variables concerned with process or the operation of the project, it appeared that project leaders perceived these variables of importance primarily in relationship to the productivity of initial goals and the inducement of people change.

The observations presented above led to the conclusion that, in some instances, project leaders perceived their projects as very effective with regards to one or more of the effectiveness indicators to the exclusion of the remainder of the effectiveness indicators.

Research Question #9

Research question #9 was stated as follows:

> What was the relationship between selected contextual variables and developmental ethnocentricity, position power and development project effectiveness?

This question was partially answered in Chapter 5, where an intercorrelation matrix of contextual and research variables was presented and examined to determine if the contextual variables had any effect upon the research variables. This intercorrelation matrix is partially re-presented as Table 38.

Findings. A number of significant correlations existed between the contextual variables and the research variables. However, only five of the significant correlations that existed were significant at the .01 level. Correlations of -.29, .33 and .31 existed between age, and institutional change, ethnocentricity and position power respectively. A correlation of .32 existed between the nature of the project and the quantity of side effects. Finally, a correlation of .43 existed between length of assignment and institutional change.

Discussion. The correlations between age and developmental ethnocentricity suggested that older project leaders were more likely to support the traditional, dominant perspective of development rather than the third world or liberation perspective of development. The correlation between age and position power, suggested that older project leaders were more likely to have exercised a higher degree of position power in relations with host national project members than were younger project leaders.

The correlation between length of assignment and institutional change, suggested that the longer a project leader worked on a particular development project, the more institutional type changes he perceived the project to have induced. A relationship between length of assignment and productivity of institutional changes appeared logical. However, it was surprising that given such a strong relationship between length of

Table 38

Correlations Between Contextual Variables and Research Variables

		RESEARCH VARIABLES							
		Productivity-Initial Goals	Quantity of Side Effects	Adaptability	Flexibility	Institutional Change	People Change	Ethnocentricity	Position Power
Contextual Variables	Age	-.02	.01	.00	.05	-.29[2]	-.16	.32[2]	.31[2]
	Educational Level	.15	.13	-.01	-.04	.01	.06	-.15	-.26[1]
	Length of Assignment	.13	.12	.14	.08	.43[3]	.10	-.26[1]	.14
	Number of Projects	-.04	-.08	-.18	-.05	-.08	-.13	.22	.12
	Number of C.I.D.A. Co-operants	-.24[1]	.05	-.05	-.06	.25[1]	-.13	.00	-.17
	Number of Host Nationals	-.13	.15	-.23[1]	-.05	.30	-.00	.02	.17
	Assigned Counterpart	-.06	.15	-.03	-.12	.06	.05	.08	.04
	Nature of Project	.09	.32[2]	.07	.04	.13	.05	.04	.14
	Location of Project	.13	-.11	.00	.00	.02	.10	.03	-.20

[1]Significant at .05 level.
[2]Significant at .01 level.
[3]Significant at .001 level.

assignment and institutional change, no relationship appeared between length of assignment and the other variables concerned with a project's product.

Finally, the correlation between the nature of the project and the quantity of side effects perceived to have been produced suggested that certain types of projects may not have been amenable to the production of side effects that were obvious to the project leader. It may have been possible, for instance, that the side effects produced from the operation of an educational project were more evident than the side effects produced from the operation of an avionics project.

Conclusion: research question #9. It was decided earlier in this study that the relationships between the contextual variables and the research variables were such that no controls for the effects of the contextual variables would be used during the examination of the relationships between and among the research variables. However, some noteworthy relationships between the contextual and research variables did exist.

For instance, the relationships between the age of project leaders and three of the research variables indicated that older project leaders, (1) perceived less institutional changes than did younger project leaders (2) were more developmentally ethnocentric than were younger project leaders and (3) exercised a higher position power than did younger project leaders.

Therefore, the answer to research question #9 was that some significant and noteworthy relationships were evident between the contextual variables and the research variables.

SUMMARY OF OBSERVATIONS: RESEARCH QUESTIONS 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 AND 9

Summary of Observations

Research question #4. Marginal evidence was observed indicating that project leaders operationalized their orientation towards one of the divergent development paradigms by assuming an appropriate position power in relations with host national project members. Therefore, the evidence suggested that there was the possibility of a relationship between a project leader's developmental ethnocentricity and the position power exercised in relation to host nationals.

Research question #5. There was no evidence that project leaders operationalized their support for one of the divergent development paradigms through their perception of the effectiveness of their projects. Therefore, there was no apparent relationship between a project leader's developmental ethnocentricity and his perception of the effectiveness of the development project he worked on.

Research question #6. Evidence was observed indicating that the degree of power exercised by a project leader affected his perception of both the flexibility of the project and the quantity of side effects produced by the project's operation. Therefore, there was a relationship between position power and perceptions of the effectiveness variables flexibility and quantity of side effects.

Research question #7. Evidence was observed indicating that position power was more influential than developmental ethnocentricity when these two variables were considered as interacting independent variables with regards to perceptions of the quantity of side effects

produced. However, marginal evidence was also observed indicating that in the overall relationship between the interaction of these two variables and the effectiveness variables, developmental ethnocentricity may have been more influential.

Research question #8. Substantial evidence was observed indicating that project leaders perceived their projects to have been effective with regards to one or more of the effectiveness variables, to the exclusion of the remainder of the effectiveness variables. Therefore, the evidence indicated that there were strong relationships between the six effectiveness indicators as selected and measured for the purposes of this study.

Research question #9. Evidence was observed indicating that relationships existed (1) between age and the research variables, developmental ethnocentricity, position power and institutional change (2) between length of assignment and the research variable, institutional change and (3) between the nature of the project and the research variable, quantity of side effects. Therefore, the evidence indicated that there were some relationships between the selected contextual variables, and the research variables as defined and measured for the purposes of this study.

Observations Versus Expectations

The line of reasoning behind the formulation of this study implied the existence of certain relationships between the three research variables, developmental ethnocentricity, position power and development project effectiveness. This line of reasoning, having originated primarily from literature relevant to each of these three research

variables, was developed in Chapter 5 as a conceptual framework presenting four possible relationships among the three variables. That is, the following possible relationships between three variables were suggested: (1) a relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and position power, (2) a relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and development project effectiveness, (3) a relationship between position power and development project effectiveness and (4) a relationship between the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power and development project effectiveness. In addition, from the literature on development project effectiveness, it was suggested that relationships would exist among the six effectiveness indicators identified as comprising development project effectiveness. The identification of these relationships also implied certain expectations with regards to the direction of the relationships. Therefore, it seemed appropriate to examine these theoretical relationship expections in view of the relationships observed in the study findings. A sixth relationship area regarding the selected contextual variables and the three research variables was also identified but there were no expectations with regards to the relationships in this area.

Relationship #1. Hochschild (1978:5) suggested that the dominant development paradigm induced powerlessness in the third world peoples. Therefore, it was reasoned that developmentally ethnocentric project leaders would exercise a high degree of position power in relations with host nationals. This expectation was only marginally supported since the research results indicated only a marginal relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and position power.

Relationship #2. In the deduction of the development project

effectiveness indicators, it was suggested that consideration must be given to perspective in the identification of development project effectiveness indicators. That is, developmentally ethnocentric project leaders would have perceived their projects to have been effective with regards to different effectiveness indicators than would developmentally unethnocentric project leaders. This was due to the fact that certain of the effectiveness indicators were derived from the dominant perspective and others from the liberation perspective.

This expectation was not supported in any way since the research results indicated that there were no relationships between developmental ethnocentricity and any of the effectiveness variables.

Relationship #3. It was suggested in the consideration of management and leadership styles for the development project that the concern for various indicators of effectiveness would have been contingent upon the style practiced. This line of reasoning implied that high position power project leaders would have perceived their projects as more effective for the effectiveness indicators reflective of a dominant development perspective, and low position power project leaders would have perceived their projects as more effective for the effectiveness indicators reflective of a liberation perspective. This suggested, for instance, that high position project leaders would have perceived their projects to have been highly productive in terms of initial goals and institutional change, and not productive in terms of side effects and people change. This expectation was not substantiated by the observations. In fact, position power was observed to have had a significant positive relationship with the quantity of side effects perceived to have been produced.

Relationship #4. Relationship #4 was observed from the construction of the conceptual framework and not based upon any theoretical line of reasoning that such a relationship existed. Therefore, there were no pre-conceived expectations with regards to the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power.

Relationship #5. In the consideration of the effectiveness indicators, it was suggested that the development project (and the project leader) served two masters--the donor nation and the recipient nation--and from the perspective of each "master" different indicators of effectiveness would have been given different priority. This line of reasoning led to the expectation that if project leaders perceived their projects to have been effective with regards to the dominant effectiveness concerns, they would not have perceived it to have been effective with regards to the liberation effectiveness concerns. This expectation was not substantiated, since it was observed that the productivity-initial goals (dominant effectiveness indicator) and people change (liberation effectiveness indicator) were substantially and positively related. That is, project leaders who perceived their projects to have been effective in terms of the major dominant effectiveness indicator (productivity-initial goals) also perceived their projects to have been effective in terms of the major liberation effectiveness indicator (people change).

Discussion. With regards to the relationship expectations as suggested by the line of reasoning that led to the examination of the relationships between the research variables, only one expectation--the positive relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and position power--was marginally supported by the research results.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the research results were presented when the data were examined within the context of six main research questions which were developed for the purposes of describing and examining the relationships among the research variables.

The major finding in this chapter was the discovery that the developmental ethnocentricity variable was only marginally related to the position power variable, and apparently unrelated to any of the effectiveness variables.

Inasmuch as this study was intended to be an exploratory review of the relationships among the developmental ethnocentricity, position power and effectiveness variables, some insights were gained about the nature of these relationships. However, it must be strongly emphasized that due to the experimental nature of the instruments developed for this study, and the data obtained for analytical purposes, the observations in this study were viewed as far from conclusive. Therefore, the conclusions stated were for heuristic purposes only. These findings would require further investigation before they could be viewed in any way conclusive in the sense of being extrapolative beyond the particular group of respondents used in this study.

With that caveat, the following are presented in the next and final chapter:

(i) summary and findings relevant to the primary problem;

(ii) hypotheses based upon the findings;

(iii) some implications for practice and

(iv) some suggestions for further study.

Chapter 8

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to present (1) a summary of the study and its findings, (2) some conclusions based upon the findings, (3) implications for practice, and (4) suggestions for further research.

SUMMARY

Study Purpose, Focus and Problem Statements

Purpose. The primary purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between selected indicators of development project effectiveness, selected characteristics of the development project, and selected contextual variables in order to suggest how manipulation of these characteristics influenced development project effectiveness.

Focus of the study. The particular focus of this study was a consideration of divergent perspectives of development/underdevelopment. The line of reasoning that led to both the formulation of this study and the development of a conceptual framework was based upon the consideration of these divergent perspectives of development represented by the dominant perspective (Hochschild, 1978) and the liberation perspective (Deblois, 1976). The dominant development paradigm (Hochschild, 1978) represented a conceptualization of development based upon Western ideals and models of social action, while the liberation development paradigm (Deblois, 1976) represented a conceptualization of development

based upon third world consciousness and praxis. From a line of reasoning based upon the tenets of these divergent perspectives, the following were identified as the major research variables for the purposes of this study.

Developmental Ethnocentricity: Sachs (1976:5) defined ethnocentricity as ". . . the degree to which things are seen as though the group to which one belongs is the centre of everything." For the purposes of this study, developmental ethnocentrism was conceptualized as an indication of an orientation towards development as measured by the support for one of the polar (liberation-dominant) development paradigms.

Position Power: Position power was defined as an indication of the level of power exercised by C.I.D.A. project leaders in relation to host national project members, measured by the degree to which the power potential of the project leader's position was exercised by the project leader.

Development Project Effectiveness: From the literature and theory on organizational effectiveness and the divergent development perspectives, six indicators of development project effectiveness were identified: (1) productivity-initial goals, (2) productivity of side effects, (3) adaptability, (4) flexibility, (5) inducement of institutional change, (6) inducement of people change. The line of reasoning that resulted in the identification of these research variables, suggested the major problem statement for this study.

The problem. The main research problem for this study was stated in question form as follows:

What were the relationships among selected indicators of the development project's effectiveness, the development project variables of project leader developmental ethnocentricity and project leader

position power and other selected contextual variables?

In order to answer the main research question, the following sub-problem questions were posed:

Sub-problem (1): Were project leaders developmentally ethnocentric or developmentally unethnocentric?

Sub-problem (2): What degree of position power did project leaders exercise in relations with host nationals?

Sub-problem (3): How did project leaders perceive the effectiveness of their development project?

Sub-problem (4): What was the relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and project leader position power on the development project?

Sub-problem (5): What was the relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

Sub-problem (6): What was the relationship between project leader position power on the development project and the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

Sub-problem (7): What was the relationship between the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power and the selected indicators of project effectiveness?

Sub-problem (8): What was the relationship between the selected indicators of development project effectiveness?

Sub-problem (9): What was the relationship between selected contextual variables and developmental ethnocentricity, position power and the development project effectiveness?

Sub-problems 1, 2 and 3 prescribed the task of describing the study respondents with regards to the research variables (accomplished in Chapter 6), while sub-problems 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 prescribed the task of describing and examining the relationships between and among the research variables (accomplished in Chapter 7).

Study Respondents

The desired group of respondents for the purposes of this study

consisted of C.I.D.A. (Canadian International Development Agency) co-operants who had returned to Canada after having acted as project team leaders on a C.I.D.A. sponsored development project. Since there was no way to pre-identify project leaders, questionnaires were sent to 235 C.I.D.A. co-operants who had returned to Canada between 1976 and June 1979. From the questionnaires returned, 54 project leaders were identified as the desired respondent group for the purposes of this study.

An examination of the contextual information gathered in part I of the questionnaire indicated that the project leaders, though almost all male (one female), varied widely in age and educational level. However, for most project leaders, the project about which they answered the questionnaire was their first project or overseas assignment. In addition, for most project leaders, the duration of this assignment was three years or less. With regards to their most recent assignment, the project leaders indicated that their projects varied widely in size, with from none to 28 other Canadians and from one to over 100 host nationals working on the project. Most of the projects were located in Africa or the Caribbean and the largest percentage (31.5%) of the projects were involved in some way with education.

Instrument Selection, Development and Evaluation

In addition to the items that provided information regarding the selected contextual variables, three instruments were developed or modified to measure each of the three main research variables. The unavailability of test subjects that approximated the desired respondent group hindered a comprehensive pre-application examination of the ques-

tionnaire instrument.

Development project effectiveness. Mott's (1972) instrument measuring organizational effectiveness with regards to productivity of initial goals, adaptability and flexibility was modified and supplemented to provide a measure of a project leader's perceptions of the effectiveness of his project with regards to six effectiveness indicators: (1) productivity of initial goals, (2) productivity of side effects, (3) adaptability, (4) flexibility, (5) inducement of institutional change and (6) inducement of people change. Adaptability and flexibility were identified as process effectiveness indicators, productivity of initial goals and inducement of institutional change as effectiveness concerns from a dominant perspective, and productivity of side effects and inducement of people change were identified as effectiveness concerns from a liberation perspective.

Developmental ethnocentricity. An instrument to measure a project leader's developmental ethnocentricity was developed for the purposes of this study. Using a technique similar to that used by Levinson (1950) to develop an ethnocentricity scale, a larger number of statements supportive of each of the divergent perspectives of development were culled down to 12 items--six representative of each perspective. A six-point response scale similar to that used by Levinson (1950) and Rokeach (1960) was developed to indicate a degree of support-opposition to each individual statement. The combined responses to the 12 items represented the measure of developmental ethnocentricity.

Position power. An instrument developed by Fiedler (1967) to measure latent leader position power was modified in order to examine the position power actually exercised by project leaders in relation to

host nationals working on their project. The instrument contained 12 items reflective of French and Raven's (1958) five bases of social power: reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power. The combined responses on a four-point scale for each item represented the measure of project leader position power.

Post-application evaluation. After the use of the instruments in the actual study, each instrument was examined with regards to its apparent suitability to measure the respective variable. The application of a factor analysis technique to the effectiveness instrument provided some justification for the six variable consideration of effectiveness. However, there was some evidence of confusion within the three groups of indicators. That is, (i) the two dominant indicators, productivity of initial goals and inducement of institutional change, showed a tendency to be grouped together, (ii) the two liberation indicators, productivity of side effects and people change, showed a tendency to be grouped together and (iii) the distinction between adaptability and flexibility was not completely clear though it was evident that they did exist as process variables, separate from the product variables.

An examination of the product moment correlations between the developmental ethnocentricity variable and the items comprising this variable showed that, other than for items 1 and 6, the measurement had a high degree of internal consistency. It was suggested that while item 6 may not have been a suitable measure of developmental ethnocentricity, item 1, though a possible measure of developmental ethnocentricity, was not sensitive to differences in ethnocentricity for the group of respondents used in this study. Although, as a whole, the

developmental ethnocentricity instrument was not found to be as sensitive to ethnocentricity differences as was hoped, it was concluded that the instrument was sufficiently sensitive for the purposes of this study.

An examination of product moment correlations between the position power variable and the items comprising this variable indicated that item 10 of the position power instrument may not have been a suitable measure of position power and should perhaps be excluded in future uses of this instrument. In addition, an examination of the range of overall position power scores showed that this instrument was not as sensitive as was hoped. However, the generally high position power scores observed may possibly have been due to the fact that project leaders as a group did in reality exercise a high degree of position power.

In general, it was felt that the instruments developed for use in this study provided suitable measures of their respective variables. However, the overall low level of sensitivity posed some limitations on the use and interpretation of the resultant data.

Data Collection

All data were collected through the use of the mailout questionnaire which is contained in Appendix A. Data with regards to the selected contextual variables were collected in part I. Data with regards to the effectiveness variable were collected through responses to the 15 questionnaire items in part II. Data with regards to developmental ethnocentricity were collected through responses to the 12 items comprising part III. The data with regards to position power were collected through responses to the 12 items comprising part IV.

Data Treatment

Response frequencies and distributions were used to describe the respondents regarding the research and contextual variables.

Pearson product moment correlations were used to examine the relationships among the contextual and research variables.

Pearson product moment correlations were used to examine the relationships: (1) between developmental ethnocentricity and perceptions of development project effectiveness, (2) between developmental ethnocentricity and position power, (3) between position power and perceptions of development project effectiveness and (4) among the six development project effectiveness indicators.

A two-way analysis of variance procedure was used to examine the relationship between the interaction of developmental ethnocentricity and position power, and the effectiveness indicators.

The S.P.S.S. (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was employed for all data treatment procedures.

Summary of Research Findings with Regards to Sub-Problems

The nature of the sub-problems suggested two major study tasks. The first task was prescribed by the first three sub-problems and involved describing the respondents with regards to their responses to the research variables. This information was presented in detail in Chapter 6. The remainder of the sub-problems prescribed the tasks of describing and examining the relationships between and among the research variables. This information was presented in detail in Chapter 7. The following is a summary of the observations with regards to each of the sub-problems.

Sub-problem #1. The group of project leaders used as respondents in this study appeared to be slightly developmentally ethnocentric. Nine project leaders indicated that they were supportive of the liberation perspective of development while 19 project leaders indicated they were supportive of the dominant perspective. In addition, an overwhelming majority of the project leaders (84.5%) indicated that they considered internal deficiencies in developing nations to be the major source of underdevelopment in those countries.

Sub-problem #2. The project leaders indicated that they exercised a high degree of position power with regards to the host nationals on their project. However, a majority (83.3%) of the project leaders also indicated that host national project members were either "occasionally" or "regularly" capable of assuming responsibility for the leadership of some or all aspects of their project's operation.

Sub-problem #3. The project leaders perceived their projects to have been generally effective overall. However, project leaders perceived their projects to have been least effective with regards to the liberation concerns for the quantity of side effects and the inducement of change. They perceived their projects to have been considerably more effective with regards to the other four effectiveness indicators, with the process indicators of adaptability and flexibility receiving the highest effectiveness scores.

Sub-problem #4. There was only marginal evidence of a relationship between a project leader's support for one of the divergent development perspectives and the degree of position power exercised in relation to host nationals. However, there appeared to be a strong relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and the exercising

of "expert power," one of the five theoretical bases of the position power variable.

Sub-problem #5. There was no evidence of any relationships of any sort between a project leader's support for one of the divergent development perspectives and perceptions of the effectiveness of the development project.

Sub-problem #6. The degree of position power exercised by a project leader in relations with host nationals was found to be related to the quantity of side effects that the project leader perceived his project to have induced. That is, high position power project leaders perceived their projects to have produced a larger quantity of side effects than did low position power project leaders. In addition, there was evidence that high position power project leaders perceived their projects to have been less flexible than low position power project leaders.

Sub-problem #7. With regards to the relationship between the interaction of a project leader's developmental ethnocentricity and his position power, and his perceptions of the effectiveness of his project, it was observed that in the relationship with the perceptions of the quantity of side effects produced, position power was the most influential variable. However, with regards to the overall relationship with the effectiveness variable, there was marginal evidence that developmental ethnocentricity was the most influential variable.

Sub-problem #8. With regards to the relationships among the selected effectiveness indicators, it was observed that there existed a strong relationship between a project leader's perception of the production of initial goals of his project and the people change induced by

his project. In addition, the project leader's perceptions with regards to the process variables, adaptability and flexibility, were found to be related only to their perceptions regarding the inducement of institutional change and the productivity of initial goals (dominant effectiveness concerns) and not related to the other product indicators, quantity of side effects and inducement of people change (liberation concerns).

Sub-problem #9. Very few significant relationships were found among the contextual variables and the research variables. However, it was observed that older project leaders tended to be more developmentally ethnocentric than were younger project leaders and also tended to exercise more position power than did younger project leaders. It was also observed that project leaders with higher formal education tended to be unethnocentric and tended to exercise less position power than did less formally educated project leaders.

In addition, certain aspects of the project itself showed some significant relationships with the research variables. For instance, it appeared that the longer the assignment and the larger the project, the more the institutional change perceived to have been induced. In addition, there appeared to be a relationship between the type of project and the project leader's perceptions of the quantity of side effects produced. However, the relationships between the contextual variables and the research variables were such that the relationships between the research variables were examined with no controls for the contextual variables.

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions are divided into three sections: (1) general conclusions regarding various aspects of this study, (2) specific hypotheses generated as a result of the observations made in the context of the sub-problem statements, and (3) conclusions with regards to the line of reasoning that resulted in both the formulation of this study and the development of the theoretical framework that guided the research procedures.

General Conclusions

Instrumentation. The post-application examination of the instrumentation used in this study indicated that there may have been some weaknesses in the instrument. This could have been expected due to the experimental nature of the instruments developed for the purposes of this study, and due to the lack of a suitable audience to pilot test the instrument before its use in the actual study. Therefore, future use of the instrumentation should consider the following suggestions:

(1) Effectiveness Instrument: (a) Tailor the wordings of the individual questionnaire items more specifically to the nature of the development project. That is, item wordings could possibly be more specific to a particular project type in order to provide greater response sensitivity. (b) In developing effectiveness items, more consideration might be given to a three factor rather than a six factor consideration. That is, consider items as (i) reflective of a dominant perspective, (ii) reflective of a liberation perspective and (iii) reflective of a process perspective of effectiveness. (c) Consider dropping item 8 from the adaptability measure.

(2) Developmental Ethnocentricity Instrument: (a) Consider dropping item 6 from the developmental ethnocentricity instrument. (b) Consider the wordings of all items in the context of the desired respondent group in order to increase sensitivity of measurement with regards to support for one or the other of the two perspectives of development.

(3) Position Power Instrument: (a) Consider dropping item 10 from the position power instrument. (b) Give more consideration to the nature of the respondent group in determining both the item wordings and the response scale. That is, in the case of this study, different wordings may have resulted in increased sensitivity over the complete response range and an expanded response scale may have resulted in increased sensitivity within the observed response range.

Generally, in future use of the instrumentation, efforts should be made to find ways to increase the sensitivity of all measures. This could be accomplished by designing the individual items in the context of a more specific respondent group, e.g. project leaders of a particular project type. This would, of course, limit the scope of the study as well.

Limitations posed by the data. Several limitations posed by the data appeared to have had an effect upon this study. First, the data collected were perceptual in nature. Therefore, the study was based upon the assumption that the respondents were able to provide valid and realistic perceptions with regards to the research variables. This assumption was complicated by the fact that in some cases these perceptions were based upon three-year-old memories and the fact that data were collected through the use of a mailout questionnaire. Although

the data collection methods used were considered most feasible for the purposes of this particular study, any future replications of this study should possibly consider alternate data collection methods to help overcome the limitations posed by perceptual data obtained by the questionnaire method.

A second limitation was posed by the nature of the data source. A rather involved method was required to identify the 54 project leaders used in this study. Although every reasonable effort was made to ensure that the group of project leaders identified represented close to a total population of project leaders who worked overseas within the past three years, the method by which they were identified could not guarantee this. In addition, by attempting to examine development projects in general rather than projects of a specific type (e.g. education), the questionnaire items were, by necessity, stated in general terms. Therefore, the resultant data were of a general nature and some sensitivity may have been sacrificed with regards to the project leaders' responses.

The final limitation concerns the interpretation of the data. Although it was recognized that due to the nature of the respondent group inferential procedures were not necessary, the usual statistical significance levels of .05, .01 and .001 were used in the classification and interpretation of the data. However, where the use of these statistically significant levels suggested that relationships did not exist, a non-statistical approach was taken by the examination of significance levels up to .10 in order to ensure the avoidance of type II errors. Although the use of significance levels was not statistically justified, it was felt that this method of data interpretation was justified in that (i) it provided recognizable interpretation standards,

(ii) it served the exploratory nature of this study, and (iii) it provided heuristically useful interpretations.

Uncontrolled influences. It must be recognized that there may have been many influences upon the project leader's perceptions of the effectiveness of his project and the position power he exercised that were neither controllable nor considered in this study. For instance, the attitude of the host national government may have influenced the working environment of the project to such an extent that the project leader would have had no choice in the degree of position power he exercised. In addition, working conditions that were outside of the influence of the project leader may have had some significant impact upon the operation and outcome of the development project. Given the absence of any strong relationships between developmental ethnocentricity and project effectiveness, the latter was a realistic possibility.

Research questions. The use of research questions proved to be a convenient way to explore and examine the research variables and the relationships between and among the research variables. The use of research questions rather than testable hypotheses allowed more flexibility in the interpretation of the data and therefore allowed the stating of conclusions more ammenable to an exploratory study such as this one. That is, rather than generate extrapolative conclusions, the research questions of an exploratory study such as this one were used to generate conclusions in the form of hypotheses that could prove useful for the purposes of further investigation.

Specific Hypotheses Regarding the Problem Statement

The main problem statement required the examination of nine sub-problems. The nature of an exploratory study, resulting in supposedly heuristic conclusions, suggested that, as a result of the examination of these sub-problems, some hypotheses could be generated that might be suitable for testing by further investigation. Although for heuristic purposes these hypotheses may be stated as though referring to project leaders in general, it should be re-emphasized that the study observations upon which the hypotheses are based were not conclusive or extrapolative past the particular group of respondents used in this study. Furthermore, some observations were based upon marginal evidence while others were based upon substantive evidence. It is in this light that generated hypotheses should be viewed. Therefore, based upon the answers to the sub-problems, the following hypotheses, suitable for testing by further investigation, were proposed.

Sub-problem #1. Sub-problem #1 asked whether project leaders were developmentally ethnocentric or developmentally unethnocentric.

> Hypothesis #1: Project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects are more supportive of the dominant perspectives of the causes and solutions of development/underdevelopment than the liberation perspectives of the causes and solutions of development/underdevelopment.

Sub-problem #2. Sub-problem #2 asked what degree of position power was exercised by project leaders.

> Hypothesis #2: Project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects exercise a high degree of position power in relations with host nationals on their projects.

Sub-problem #3. Sub-problem #3 asked how leaders perceived the effectiveness of their projects.

Hypothesis #3(a): Project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects perceive their projects to be most effective in terms of the process effectiveness indicators: adaptability and flexibility.

Hypothesis #3(b): Project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects perceive their projects to be least effective in terms of the liberation effectiveness indicators: productivity of side effects and inducement of people change.

Hypothesis #3(c): Project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects perceive the overall effectiveness of their projects primarily in terms of the dominant effectiveness indicators: productivity of initial goals and inducement of institutional change.

Sub-problem #4. Sub-problem #4 asked what the relationship was between project leader developmental ethnocentricity and project leader position power.

Hypothesis #4. Project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects who support the dominant perspective of the causes and solutions of development/underdevelopment exercise a higher degree of position power in relations with host nationals than do project leaders who support the liberation perspective.

Sub-problem #5. Sub-problem #5 asked what the relationship was between project leader developmental ethnocentricity and project leader perceptions of the effectiveness of their project.

Hypothesis #5: There is no relationship between C.I.D.A. project leaders' support for one or the other of the dominant or liberation perspectives of development/underdevelopment and their perceptions of the effectiveness of their project.

Sub-problem #6. Sub-problem #6 asked what the relationship was between project leader position power and perceptions of the indicators of development project effectiveness.

Hypothesis #6(a): Project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects who exercise a high degree of position power in relation to host nationals working on their project also perceive their projects to be productive with regards to the side effects generated by the project's operation and also perceive their projects to be a flexible operation.

Hypothesis #6(b): There is no relationship between the degree of position power exercised by C.I.D.A. project leaders and their perceptions of the effectiveness of their projects in terms of the following effectiveness indicators: productivity of initial goals, adaptability, institutional change, and people change.

Sub-problem #7. Sub-problem #7 asked what the relationship was between the interaction of project leader developmental ethnocentricity and position power, and perceptions of development project effectiveness.

Hypothesis #7(a): When project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects are either developmentally unethnocentric but exercise a high degree of position power, or are developmentally ethnocentric but exercise a low degree of position power, the degree of position power exercised is more active in influencing their perceptions of the quantity of side effects generated by their project's operation.

Hypothesis #7(b): When project leaders on C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects are either developmentally unethnocentric but exercise a high degree of position power, or developmentally ethnocentric and exercise a low position power, developmental ethnocentricity is more active in influencing their perceptions of the overall effectiveness of their projects.

Sub-problem #8. Sub-problem #8 asked what the relationships were among the six selected indicators of development project effectiveness.

Hypothesis #8(a): Project leaders for C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects require their projects to be effective in both the inducement of people change and the productivity of initial goals in order to be considered effective with regards to the other effectiveness indicators.

Hypothesis #8(b): Project leaders for C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects require their projects to be effective in terms of the two process effectiveness indicators (adaptability and flexibility) in order to be considered effective in terms of the productivity variables, inducement of institutional change and productivity of initial goals.

Sub-problem #9. Sub-problem #9 asked what the relationships were among the selected contextual variables and the research variables.

Hypothesis #9(a): Older C.I.D.A. project leaders are more

supportive of the dominant perspective of the causes and solutions of development/underdevelopment.

Hypothesis #9(b): Older C.I.D.A. project leaders exercise a higher position power in relations with host nationals working on their projects.

Hypothesis #9(c): The longer C.I.D.A. project leaders are on assignment overseas on a development project, the more institutional change they perceive the operation of their projects to induce.

The Study Purpose and the Line of Reasoning

The line of reasoning that led to the formulation of this study also implied certain expectations with regards to the relationships among the research variables. First, the line of reasoning led to the expectation that some relationships existed among the research variables. This expectation led to the statement of the purpose of the study: the examination of the relationship among selected indicators of development project effectiveness, selected characteristics of the development project, and selected contextual variables, in order to suggest how manipulation of these characteristics might influence development project effectiveness. However, the absence of relationships between the effectiveness variable and the other identified research and contextual variables meant that very little could be concluded with regards to the improvement of development project effectiveness.

Second, the line of reasoning led to certain expectations with regards to the nature of relationships among the research variables. The study observations did not wholly support these expectations. Although some relationships were identified, only the tentative relationship between developmental ethnocentricity and position power supported

the expectations suggested by the line of reasoning. Both the failure to meet in any substantial way, the major purpose of this study and the absence of expected relationships, could suggest a weak foundation for this line of reasoning. That is, faulty logical reasoning may have led to the identification of the research variables used in this study. This would imply, however, that a concern for divergent perspectives of the causes and solutions of development/underdevelopment and the operational impact of these divergent perspectives was not warranted. This researcher did not accept this conclusion. It was this researcher's opinion that the weakness of this study did not rest with the logical reasoning behind the study but with the instrumentation and concomitant data gathering procedures used to investigate this line of reasoning. In addition, the absence of significant relationships may have been due more to the effects of extraneous variables (related to the project's operation) that were beyond the control of the project leader, rather than due to the fact that no relationships existed in reality.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Implications for practice based upon this study are presented in two sections: (1) the practical implications of the development of the theoretical concept of developmental ethnocentrism and (2) the practical implications of the observed results of the study.

Developmental Ethnocentrism

Developmental ethnocentrism was conceptualized for the purposes of this study as the degree of support for one of the divergent perspectives of the causes and solutions of development/underdevelopment.

The practical implications of an individual or nation supporting one of the liberation or the dominant development paradigms were outlined in detail in the development of the instrument used to measure the concept of developmental ethnocentricity as it was defined for the purposes of this study. However, an explication of the concept of developmental ethnocentricity, considered in more general terms, may have some further implications for practice outside of the specific realm of third world development/underdevelopment.

The tenets of the divergent (liberation-dominant) development paradigms suggested polar positions with regards to the question of development in the third world context. That is, the liberation and dominant paradigms represented opposing stances with regards to not only the causes and solutions of underdevelopment but also the nature of the development process itself. In this regard, there is growing evidence that the concerns of development are not strictly confined to the third world context. Conflicts are becoming evident between individuals or groups who have opposing views of the nature of the development process as it occurs within the so-called developed nations themselves. There are numerous examples of these conflicts of which the following are only representative: (i) The Baker Lake, N.W.T., Inuit questioning and opposing the uncontrolled mineral explorations on their traditional hunting grounds, (ii) a municipality opposing and questioning the construction of a new factory in its district, (iii) wilderness preservationists opposing and questioning the development of recreational facilities in the Rocky Mountain foothills, (iv) outlying counties and districts opposing and questioning annexation bids

by the City of Edmonton.

In all of the above examples there exist two polar positions: (i) those who are proposing to implement a development scheme and (ii) those who are opposing either the development scheme itself or the form and manner in which the development process is to occur. In all cases, the concept of developmental ethnocentricity could be defined in terms of support for the tenets of one or the other of the polar positions with regards to the particular development process proposed. Furthermore, a definite linkage can be observed between the liberation-dominant dichotomy and the conflicts over development concerns that are becoming more evident within countries like Canada. That is, the basis of development conflicts appears to be between the concern for industrial/economic development and the concern for the effects of development upon people. Therefore, as with the liberation-dominant dichotomy, at issue are the opposing forces of economic and people development.

Therefore, as the concept of developmental ethnocentrism was applied to the consideration of the development project in the context of third world development, so may the concept of developmental ethnocentricity be applied to domestic development issues in Canada. For example, as was suggested in the theoretical framework of this study, the developmental ethnocentricity of individuals or groups involved in the development process may have some effect upon the operation and result of the development process. For instance, Chevalier and Burns (1978) suggested that polar development positions regarding the concerns of ecodevelopment, might assume the management strategies of "Management by Objectives" and "Management by Interests," respectively.

Although it was past the scope of this study to explore in detail the importance of this expanded concept of developmental ethnocentricity, an important implication of this study lies in the possibilities of exploring the application of the concept of developmental ethnocentricity to Canada's domestic development conflicts.

Study Results: Implications for the Development Project

It was emphasized in this study that the results should not be viewed as extrapolative past the particular group of respondents used in this study. However, the possibility existed (although it was not assumed) that project leaders used as respondents in this study were representative of C.I.D.A. project leaders in general.

Given this possibility, the results of this study could suggest a number of implications for practice with regards to project leaders of C.I.D.A. sponsored development projects. Paul Gerin-Lajoie, President of C.I.D.A. (1976:16) pointed out that Canada must recognize that the third world

> wants better prices for their products and easier access to world markets, a voice in reforming the international monetary system, permanent control over their own material resources. . . .

That is, Canada must recognize the third world demands for new terms of trade and aid implicit in the liberation development paradigm. The following implications of the study results were presented in the context of Canada's apparent desire to recognize the liberation perspective of development, (although recent statements issued through Canada's Department of External Affairs imply that this is not the case).

(1) The C.I.D.A. project leaders examined in this study appeared to be more supportive of the dominant perspective of develop-

ment. Therefore, if C.I.D.A. is concerned about the third world perspective, efforts should be made to sensitize their project leaders to the liberation perspectives of the causes and solutions of development/underdevelopment.

(2) The C.I.D.A. project leaders examined in this study appeared to exercise a high degree of position power in relation to host nationals working on their projects. If C.I.D.A. is concerned about the liberation view of the powerlessness of third world peoples in relation to the first world, more efforts should be made to employ, as project leaders, individuals who are more likely to exercise a low degree of position power. The results of this study also indicated that developmentally ethnocentric project leaders exercised the highest degree of position power. Therefore, sensitizing prospective project leaders to the third world development demands may decrease the level of position power these individuals would exercise in relations with host nationals on their projects.

(3) The C.I.D.A. project leaders examined in this study appeared to perceive their projects as successful in the dominant effectiveness concerns of productivity of initial goals and inducement of institutional change. In addition, they perceived the overall effectiveness of their projects primarily in terms of these two dominant effectiveness indicators. Therefore, if C.I.D.A. is concerned with either the operation of the development project in terms of its adaptability or flexibility or the effectiveness of the development project in terms of the liberation concerns of the quantity of side effects and the inducement of people change, efforts should be made to make their project leaders aware of these effectiveness concerns. Concomi-

tantly, proposals for the evaluation of C.I.D.A. development projects should involve not only the consideration of the usual productivity criteria, but consider also the operation of the project and the liberation concerns for project side effects and people change as necessary evaluation criteria.

(5) It was observed in this study that the older project leaders were more developmentally ethnocentric and exercised a higher degree of position power. In addition, project leaders with more formal education were less ethnocentric and exercised a lower degree of position power in relations with host nationals. Therefore, if C.I.D.A. is concerned with lowering both the developmental ethnocentricity of their project leaders and the position power they exercise in relations with host nationals, efforts should be made to utilize young project leaders who have acquired a high degree of formal education.

Conclusion. In general, it was concluded that if C.I.D.A. is serious about recognizing the third world or liberation development perspective then it is imperative that C.I.D.A. personnel develop a method to "sensitize" their project leaders to the liberation perspectives of the causes and solutions of development/underdevelopment.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The exploratory nature of this study has given rise to a long list of suggestions for further research. For instance, it has been emphasized that any of the conclusions stated as a result of the study observations were to be considered as heuristic conclusions and thus to be considered as guides for further investigation. In addition, the

following information relevant for the consideration of further research was previously presented in this chapter:

(1) Based upon the research observations, a number of hypotheses were presented that could be suitable for testing by further investigation.

(2) Suggestions were made with regards to the future use of the questionnaire instruments developed for the purposes of this study.

(3) The application of the concept of developmental ethnocentrism to the context of Canada's domestic development concerns was examined and suggested as an implication of this study worthy of further consideration.

Therefore, in addition to the previously mentioned topics, the following are some suggestions for further research.

Developmental ethnocentrism. This study examined the developmental ethnocentricity of C.I.D.A. project leaders and attempted to explore the relationships between the developmental ethnocentricity and other identified research variables concerned with C.I.D.A. development projects. It was concluded that with some minor refinement, the instrument used in this study could be a useful measure of an individual's orientation towards development. It would be a most useful exercise to use the instrument developed in this study to compare the developmental ethnocentricity of various groups involved in international development work. For example, it would be most interesting (as well as useful in providing further operational testing of the instrument) to use this instrument to compare the developmental ethnocentricity of C.I.D.A.'s co-operants to the developmental ethnocentricity of B.D.D. (British Development Division) co-operants, A.I.D. (Agency for Inter-

national Development) co-operants, or the co-operants of any of the other major international aid agencies. Another comparison might be made between the developmental ethnocentricity of C.I.D.A. and A.I.D. co-operants, and the field personnel for C.U.S.O. (Canadian University Service Overseas) and Peace Corps.

With regards to any future attempts to relate developmental ethnocentricity to other research variables concerned with the development project, the findings of this study support the suggestion that caution be exercised in selecting variables that have more than a passing chance of being causally related to developmental ethnocentricity. As Perrow (1977:96) pointed out, in any attempt to make a causal relationship between variables, ". . . the variables had better be pretty closely linked." In any attempt to replicate this particular study, it should be kept in mind that no evidence was observed that suggested the research variables were closely linked.

Position power. For the purposes of this study, position power was considered as a possible link between a project leader's developmental ethnocentricity and his perception of the effectiveness of his project. Although some evidence of this link was observed, the relative insensitivity of the instrument developed to distinguish between the degrees of position power exercised by project leaders posed some limitations. The nature of the position power instrument was such that it could only be validly used with individuals performing some leadership role. This limited use potential for both the instrument and the concept restricted the scope of any suggestions for further research. However, the concept of position power is worthy of consideration in any further explorations of the relationship between developmental ethnocentricity

and other selected aspects of the development project.

Development project effectiveness. For the purposes of this study, six indicators of development project effectiveness were derived from research and theory, and from the perspectives of the divergent development paradigms. This was considered an attempt to provide an overall measure of the effectiveness of the development project. In view of the results of this study, it can be suggested that the area of development project effectiveness could be a very fruitful research area. More research is necessary to determine what factors contribute to the effectiveness of a development project and, therefore, determine suitable evaluation criteria for the development project. One approach to research on development project effectiveness could be to examine in detail the project evaluation techniques presently used by the major international aid agencies. These observations of reality could be compared to a normative model of effectiveness such as the one developed for this study. Another approach might be to replicate Hirschman's (1967) case study approach to discover what it is that separates successful development projects from unsuccessful development projects. Also, during the literature search of this study, it was discovered that there were a large number of existing csse studies of individual development projects. These case studies were usually concerned with a particular project area (e.g., family planning) and were done under the auspices of a particular aid agency (e.g., W.H.O.). However, a meta approach whereby a large number of these case study reports were analyzed, might prove illuminating regarding the effectiveness of development projects. At any rate, there is room for considerably more research of any kind

into development project effectiveness and the evaluation of foreign aid sponsored development projects in general.

Development projects in general. As stated previously, there is a definite lacunae of research into foreign aid sponsored development projects in general. This study attempted to consider the development project in general, and not restrict the research to a particular project type, though the exploration was restricted to a specific aid agency. It has already been mentioned that this general approach may have been self-defeating, in that the general approach necessitated general questionnaire items that may have decreased the instrumentation sensitivity. However, this researcher believes that, in the long term, it is research regarding development projects in general that is needed, although it may prove more fruitful in the short term to work from the specific to the general.

Therefore, in future attempts to research the operation, management, effectiveness, etc. of the development project, the scope of the research could be more tightly delineated than was done for this study. Specifically, the research might prove more fruitful if limited to a particular project type, e.g., education, agriculture, avionics, community health.

Keeping this in mind, a useful approach might be a meta analysis of existing individual case studies in a particular area. A number of case studies of individual projects concerned with a specific subject area and from the perspective of a specific aid agency were found in the process of doing the literature review for this study. It would be expected that inquiries directed at specific international aid agencies would uncover copious quantities of such case studies. Perhaps, collect-

ively, these case studies would provide useful insights into selected aspects of the development project.

Conclusion. As a possible research area the foreign aid sponsored development project is an open arena. Although undoubtedly there is room for further individual case studies of specific projects sponsored by a specific agency, the researcher believes that research emphasis should be placed upon an examination of development projects in a more general sense. This study represented a seminal attempt at an empirical approach to exploring the relationships between selected aspects of the development project in general, and if it served no other purpose, the study did expose the difficulties facing a researcher in attempting such a study. Previously in this section, a meta analysis of existing case studies approach was identified as another way to examine in a more general sense the characteristics of the development project.

However, whatever the approach used, priority should be given to the kind of research that will provide information useful in generating a comprehensive description of the operation, management and evaluation of the foreign aid sponsored development project.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire Instrument

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
EDMONTON, CANADA
T6G 2G5

Dear Returned C.I.D.A. Co-operant:

You have been randomly selected from a larger population of C.I.D.A. co-operants who have returned from overseas assignment to assist me in research for my Ph.D. thesis.

I would prefer not to go into detail at this time about the specific purposes of the research. As will become obvious from the enclosed questionnaire, the research variables are concerned with aspects of the development project itself, the area of development and the co-operant. As a returned C.I.D.A. co-operant myself, I feel that the information you will help me obtain will have some future pragmatic value.

The enclosed questionnaire should only take about fifteen minutes of your time to complete. ALL RESPONSES WILL BE STRICTLY ANONYMOUS. An addressed, stamped envelope is provided for your convenience.

It would be greatly appreciated if you could complete this questionnaire and send it back to me as soon as possible.

Those of you who would like further information with regards to the study I am undertaking, please feel free to enclose a note with the returned questionnaire. I would be most willing to supply you with both details of the study and the research results.

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Yours truly,

D.G. Marshall

DGM:cg
Encl.

David G. Marshall

PART I PERSONAL DATA

COMPLETE EACH OF THE FOLLOWING BY CHECKING OR FILLING IN THE MOST APPROPRIATE RESPONSE.

ALL INFORMATION WILL BE TREATED CONFIDENTIALLY.

For Coding Purposes Only	
I.D. 1 2 3	
1. Sex: Male _____ . Female _____	4
2. Age as of last birthday: _____ years.	5,6
3. Highest level of education achieved (as of September, 1979) was: _____ _____	7
4. On how many aid projects have you been a co-operant? _____ projects	8
5. How long were you overseas on your most recent C.I.D.A. assignment? (of over six months) _____ years	9
6. How many other C.I.D.A. co-operants worked (on this most recent assignment) with you? _____ Canadians	10,11
7. How many host nationals worked full time (on this most recent assignment) with you? _____ host nationals	12,13
8. Were you assigned a host national counterpart? _____ Yes _____ No	14
9. What was your job title? _____	15

10. Were you considered the project "team leader" or "project co-ordinator"? (or co-leader or co-ordinator).

_____ Yes _____ No

16

11. Briefly describe the nature of the work done by the project.

_____

_____

_____

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12. In what country was your assignment? _____

18

PART II THE DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

BASED UPON YOUR PERCEPTIONS OF THE MOST RECENT C.I.D.A. PROJECT YOU WORKED ON, PLEASE RESPOND TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.

CIRCLE THE NUMBER THAT CORRESPONDS TO THE MOST APPROPRIATE RESPONSE.

Implied in the existence of any development project is the expectation of some product as an end result. This may take the form of a "product," a "service" or perhaps a "process." These production expectations are usually stated in terms of the initial goals of a project.

Think about the stated INITIAL GOALS of your project.

IN TERMS OF THE PRODUCTIVITY OF THESE GOALS:

For Coding Purposes Only

1. How much would you say the project produced?

Low Productivity	Fairly Low Productivity	Neither High Nor Low	High Productivity	Very High Productivity	
1	2	3	4	5	19

2. How would you assess the quality of the products or services produced?

Low Quality	Not Too Good Quality	Fair Quality	Good Quality	Excellent Quality	
1	2	3	4	5	20

3. Did your project get maximum output from the resources (money, people, time, equipment, etc.) that were available? In other words, how efficient was the project?

Inefficient	Not Very	Fairly	Quite	Extremely	
1	2	3	4	5	21

From time to time products result from the operation of a project that were not considered in the listing of the goals of the project. These could be considered as unanticipated side effects and may or may not be considered beneficial. These side effects can take many forms: attitudes, a new product, administrative procedures, employment, etc.

IN TERMS OF THE PRODUCTIVITY OF THESE SIDE EFFECTS:

4. What quantity of side effects would you say were produced?

None	Fairly Low	Neither High Nor Low	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

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(IF YOU CIRCLED '1' ABOVE, SKIP TO QUESTION 7)

5. How good a job did you and the other project members do in accommodating these side effects into the project's operation?

Poor Job	Not Too Good A Job	Fair Job	Good Job	Excellent Job
1	2	3	4	5

23

6. How would you assess the quality of these side effects?

Not Beneficial	Not Too Beneficial	Fairly Beneficial	Beneficial	Very Beneficial
1	2	3	4	5

24

Think now about the operation or implementation of your project.

7. How good a job did you and the people on your project do in preventing or minimizing the effects of problems that come up in the course of the project's operation?

Poor Job	Not Very Good	Fair	Very Good	Excellent Job
1	2	3	4	5

25

8. The development project by nature exists in a unique socio-cultural, economic, and political environment. With regards to project planning and implementation how necessary was it for you and other project members to consider this environment?

No Consideration	Very Little	Some	A Lot	Very Much Consideration
1	2	3	4	5

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9. From time to time, new ways are found to do the work on a project. How good a job did project members do in keeping up with those changes that could have a direct effect upon the ways in which they did their jobs?

Poor Job	Not Too Good	Fair	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

27

10. What proportion of the project members readily accepted and adjusted to changes when they were made?

Much Less Than Half	Less Than Half	Greater Than Half	Much Greater Than Half	All
1	2	3	4	5

28

11. From time to time emergencies arise such as a local government change, a funds reduction, major equipment problems, work running behind schedule, resignations of project members and so on. How would you rate the people in your department when it comes to coping with these kinds of situations?

Poor	Not Very Well	Fair	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

29

Implicit in the development project is the expectation that some kind of broader societal change will result from the project's implementation. Change can generally be induced in institutions (buildings, roads, processes, administrative procedures techniques, etc.) or induced in people (attitudes, beliefs, awareness, etc.)

12. Assess the amount of institutional (buildings, roads, processes, administrative procedures, techniques, etc.) changes that you perceive your project to have induced.

Very Little	Little	Some	A Lot	A Very Large Amount
1	2	3	4	5

30

13. Assess the amount of people (attitudes, beliefs, awareness, etc.) change that you perceive your project to have induced, not only in project members, but in the general society as well.

Very Little	Little	Some	A Lot	A Very Large Amount
1	2	3	4	5

31

14. How permanent would you estimate any induced changes to be?

Not At All Permanent	Temporary	Fairly Permanent	Very Permanent	Permanent
1	2	3	4	5

32

15. In general, how would you rate the overall effectiveness of your project?

Very Low	Quite Low	Average	Quite High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

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PART III DEVELOPMENT

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR LEVEL OF SUPPORT FOR/OPPOSITION WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS.

IF NONE OF THE RESPONSE CHOICES IS APPROPRIATE, PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER THAT IS CLOSEST TO THE DESIRED RESPONSE.

For Coding Purposes Only

1. Internal (social, political, economic, psychological) deficiencies in developing nations are the real sources of underdevelopment.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition
1	2	3	4	5	6

34

2. Administrative deficiencies and inefficiencies in developing nations can be best overcome by the transfer to developing nations of western organizational models and administrative practices.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition
1	2	3	4	5	6

35

3. Economic growth in developing nations depends primarily upon the infusions of foreign capital for the purpose of building a strong entrepreneurial class.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition
1	2	3	4	5	6

36

4. In supplying aid to underdeveloped countries the best procedure is to send necessary and suitable materials plus Canadian personnel to oversee the use of these materials.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition
1	2	3	4	5	6

37

5. In supplying aid to underdeveloped countries the best procedure is to supply money and let the recipient country use the Canadian aid dollars as they see fit.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition	
1	2	3	4	5	6	38

6. Redistribution of income to all levels of society (i.e. take from the rich - give to the poor) is a necessary criterion for third world development.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition	
1	2	3	4	5	6	39

7. Although not perfect by any means, the standards of living/lifestyles in developed countries are worthy of emulating and could be considered as something for underdeveloped nations to strive for.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition	
1	2	3	4	5	6	40

8. It seems only appropriate that Canadian tax dollars given as foreign aid to a developing nation should be spent back in Canada, providing a boost to Canadian export industry and therefore reducing unemployment.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition	
1	2	3	4	5	6	41

9. The present relationship (i.e. terms of aid and trade) between developing nations and developed nations keeps the developing world in a continual state of dependency and therefore this relationship is a major cause of underdevelopment.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition	
1	2	3	4	5	6	42

10. Developed nations models of organization, and their theories and practices of administration are just not suitable for application in the developing context.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition	
1	2	3	4	5	6	43

11. Present trade barriers (i.e. import duties and quotas) imposed by Canada and other developed nations to protect home industries, are major obstacles that must be removed before third world development can occur.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition
1	2	3	4	5	6

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12. Developing nations should take charge of their own development process and never let outsiders impose development plans based upon development experiences previously successful in the first world.

Strong Support	Moderate Support	Slight Support	Slight Opposition	Moderate Opposition	Strong Opposition
1	2	3	4	5	6

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PART IV THE CO-OPERANT

PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH OF THE STATEMENTS PRESENTED BELOW WITH REGARDS TO YOUR SITUATION ON THE MOST RECENT C.I.D.A. PROJECT YOU WERE INVOLVED IN.

CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER

		For Coding Purposes Only
1.	You recommended "punishments and rewards" with regards to host nationals who worked on the project. Never | Rarely | Occasionally | Regularly 1 2 3 4	46
2.	You "punished or rewarded" host national project members on your own accord. Never | Rarely | Occasionally | Regularly 1 2 3 4	47
3.	You made recommendations that could have some effect upon promotion or demotion of host national project members. Never | Rarely | Occasionally | Regularly 1 2 3 4	48
4.	You told or directed host national project members what to do or say. Never | Rarely | Occasionally | Regularly 1 2 3 4	49
5.	You were expected to and attempted to motivate host national project members. Never | Rarely | Occasionally | Regularly 1 2 3 4	50
6.	You were expected to and attempted to supervise and evaluate or correct host national project members' work. Never | Rarely | Occasionally | Regularly 1 2 3 4	51

7. It was important to you that your opinion was accorded considerable respect and was given appropriate attention by host national project members.

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	
1	2	3	4	52

8. Due to your special status, you would imagine that compliments from you were appreciated more than compliments from host national project members.

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	
1	2	3	4	53

9. Because of your special knowledge or information (and project members lack of it), you were the most able to make decisions as to how tasks were to be done or how the group was to proceed.

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	
1	2	3	4	54

10. Since you knew your own work as well as the host national project members' jobs, in the interests of expediting the work, you finished project tasks yourself.

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	
1	2	3	4	55

11. You volunteered advice to host national project members in matters unrelated to the area of your special knowledge or expertise.

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	
1	2	3	4	56

12. As a consequence of experience, skills, etc. acquired during the project's operation, host national project members (or member) were capable of replacing you in assuming responsibility for the leadership of some or all aspects of the project's operation.

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	
1	2	3	4	57

APPENDIX B

Factor Analysis: Effectiveness Instrument

Effectiveness Instrument: Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix - Four Factor Solution as Suggested by Eigenvalues

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Item 1	0.62020	-0.02707	0.11463	0.19686
Item 2	0.41031	0.13088	0.47442	0.12053
Item 3	0.61077	0.15721	0.37045	0.08505
Item 4	0.16132	0.75403	0.22416	-0.02831
Item 5	0.09105	0.64049	0.17681	0.38263
Item 6	0.08811	0.54063	0.37071	0.23402
Item 7	0.21068	0.29829	0.11191	0.54373
Item 8	-0.05557	-0.03377	0.17888	-0.43353
Item 9	0.16825	0.20579	0.46936	0.43060
Item 10	-0.00484	-0.00367	0.42425	0.73371
Item 11	0.09155	0.19186	0.64725	-0.02217
Item 12	0.42500	0.34909	-0.06683	-0.01939
Item 13	0.37896	0.31829	0.52647	0.05489
Item 14	0.58526	0.13029	0.34174	-0.21796
Item 15	0.83742	0.16610	0.04362	0.25238

Effectiveness Instrument: Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix - Forced Six Factor Solution

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Item 1	0.59448	-0.05711	0.14058	0.13506	-0.07974	0.19251
Item 2	0.61686	0.25383	0.15304	0.10431	0.13699	-0.22618
Item 3	0.68819	0.17206	0.17110	0.02947	0.15525	0.08816
Item 4	0.16926	0.85507	-0.00323	0.09951	0.05003	0.15521
Item 5	0.11808	0.58120	0.43778	0.10817	-0.01322	0.09266
Item 6	0.14626	0.49994	0.42466	0.04242	0.26798	0.08611
Item 7	0.18315	0.18254	0.70170	0.01932	-0.02451	0.17316
Item 8	0.00018	0.00139	-0.28470	-0.17494	0.34861	-0.03093
Item 9	0.21985	0.22591	0.29127	0.89757	0.09145	0.01189
Item 10	0.13456	0.03920	0.68166	0.30041	0.05438	0.17561
Item 11	0.18958	0.14345	0.18231	0.24338	0.80901	0.06676
Item 12	0.24886	0.18340	0.04180	-0.00547	0.05763	0.70433
Item 13	0.53497	0.43900	0.04838	0.26459	0.17614	-0.09017
Item 14	0.61663	0.13077	-0.08001	-0.03919	0.27189	0.17594
Item 15	0.74137	0.09522	0.20467	0.11359	-0.16831	0.32869

APPENDIX C

Distribution of Scores: Developmental Ethnocentricity, Position Power, Productivity-Initial Goals and Adaptability Variables

Distribution of Scores: Developmental Ethnocentricity

N = 54

Score[1]	N
2.3	1
2.7	1
2.8	1
2.8	3
2.9	2
3.0	1
3.1	3
3.2	2
3.3	4
3.4	5
3.6	2
3.7	2
3.8	3
3.9	5
4.0	4
4.1	3
4.2	1
4.3	1
4.4	4
4.6	1
4.8	2
5.1	1
5.3	1
5.8	1
Total	54

[1]Scores reported as means.

Distribution of Scores: Position Power

N = 54

Score[1]	N
1.5	2
1.9	1
2.0	3
2.2	3
2.3	3
2.4	2
2.5	1
2.6	1
2.7	6
2.8	6
2.9	7
3.0	7
3.1	4
3.2	4
3.3	2
3.5	1
3.6	1
Total	54

[1]Scores reported as means.

Distribution of Scores: Adaptability

N = 53

Score[1]	N
2.8	2
3	1
3.3	6
3.6	9
3.8	9
4.0	7
4.3	11
4.6	5
4.8	2
5.0	1
Total	53

[1]Scores reported as means.

Distribution of Scores: Productivity-Initial Goals

N = 53

Score[1]	N
1.0	1
1.7	1
2.3	1
2.7	4
3.0	5
3.3	5
3.7	11
4.0	10
4.3	12
4.7	2
5.0	1
Total	53

[1]Scores reported as means.

APPENDIX D

Correspondence

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Department of Educational Administration
EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241

Chére Madame ou cher Monsieur,

Malheureusement, faute de temps et d'argent, aussi à cause du très petit nombre de répondants vivant au Québec, il ne nous a pas été possible de traduire en français le questionnaire ci-inclus.

Cependant, ne voulant pas exclure tous les correspondants québecois possible, je me suis permis de vous envoyer tout de même notre questionnaire en anglais, espérent malgré tout que vous voudrez bien y répondre.

Si cela ne vous est pas possible, je m'excuse de vous avoir ennuyé et vous prie de bien vouloir me retourner le questionnaire en indiquant que vous préférez ne pas participer à une enquête présentée uniquement en anglais.

Je vous remercie de l'attention que vous porterez à ma requête et vous prie d'accepter mes sentiments les plus distinqués.

D. M. Marshall

Dear Sir/Madam:

Due to time and financial constraints as well as the small number of respondents living in Quebec it was not considered feasible to translate the questionnaire into French. However, rather than exclude all possible Quebec respondents from the study I am sending you the questionnaire in English on the chance that you might respond to an English only questionnaire. If this is not possible, I apologize for inconveniencing you and request that you return the questionnaire to me indicating that you prefer not to respond in English.

Thank you for your assistance.

D. M. Marshall

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Department of Educational Administration
EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241

Dear Sir/Madam,

A questionnaire was sent to you recently regarding various aspects of development projects and C.I.D.A. co-operants working on these projects. A number of questionnaires have not yet been returned.

These questionnaires are quite important to me as they are for use in a study I am doing for my Ph.D. For the study to be valid, I require a high rate of return for the questionnaires.

If you have not already done so, I would very much appreciate you helping me out by returning the completed questionnaire.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours Truly

D.G. Marshall

D.G. Marshall

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Department of Educational Administration
EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241

Sept. 14/79

Dear

First of all, my apologies for being somewhat of a nuisance! About a month ago I sent you a questionnaire to complete and return to me. To this date I have not heard from you.

I do realize that receiving such things in the mail can be an inconvenience, and to some may appear a waste of time to complete. However, the return of the completed questionnaires is quite important to me as they are necessary to help me complete some research I am doing for a Ph. D.

In the event that you have misplaced the original questionnaire that I sent you, I have enclosed another, along with a self-addressed envelope.

If, for some reason, you do not wish to complete the questionnaire, would you please return it to me uncompleted.

Your co-operation in helping me out by returning a completed questionnaire would be sincerely appreciated.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours Truly

David G. Marshall

P.S. If you have already sent me the questionnaire, thank you for your assistance and please accept my apologies for bothering you unnecessarily.